THE

LITERARY PANORAMA.

FOR FEBRUARY, 1807.

THE subject next in order among those *not published*, on which we might have submitted our thoughts to the public, is of too delicate a nature to be divulged, as it refers less to the defence of the kingdom in *times past*, which therefore may be spoken of without hazard, than to *time present*, when every honest subject will consider caution, and sometimes silence, as an important part of his duty to his country. What other articles of a similar description we have been favoured with, cannot well be comprised in the remaining numbers of this volume; they will therefore appear in the succeeding volume; and we propose, at this time, to avail ourselves of what intelligence has been officially communicated in the

Papers relative to the Negociation with France, presented, by His Majesty's Command, to both Houses of Parliament, 22d December, 1806.

These papers have been already reviewed, as to their main subject, by two Most Honourable corps of Reviewers; which have reported their opinion concerning them. Undoubtedly, we have not the smallest intention of impugning the decision of those eminent critics, who, we learn, expressed their approbation "without a division;" but, as we have often seen circumstances that escaped the first reporters on works of importance, become interesting under the consideration of others, we are tempted to hazard a few thoughts on the contents of this *publication*. We believe that our remarks have not been anticipated by any of the literati who had taken their seats in those critical assemblies to which we refer.

It appears by these documents, that the negociation commenced about March, 1806. That, it was, at first, understood, that each party should keep the countries, then in its actual possession, unless exchanges should induce either to accept others in compensation, whether for a part, or for the whole of them. M. Talleyrand states expressly, April 1, that, *the Emperor of France covets nothing England possesses*. This may be admitted, as to Buonaparté himself; but, if we reflect on the possessions of England at that moment, we shall discover obstacles which we wonder Buonaparté should be so blind as to have overlooked, though but for a time. The ancient and established possessions of England could not, on the slightest pretence, be called to recollection on this occasion; *they* could, on no account, be separated from the parent state: but, the recent acquisitions of Britain could hardly be forgotten by a well-informed statesman. These were, the Cape of Good Hope, taken from the Dutch; Sicily, held on behalf of the King of Naples; and lastly Buenos Ayres, very lately taken from Spain. Buonaparté having placed one of his brothers as King over the Dutch, and another brother as King of Naples, discovered, or more probably was informed by them, during the negociation, that their respective kingdoms were not worth holding, under these privations. The reasons of this, may be worth our inquiry.

Holland is a country of dense population, but of small extent; and part of its surface produces little that can serve as food for man. Unable to support its inhabitants, it draws supplies from abroad; and receives corn for its sustenance from foreigners. For this accommodation Holland must *pay*: and having enjoyed a flourishing commerce, it was able to pay, with great ease, for whatever foreigners could furnish. But if once the source of its ability to pay be interrupted or exhausted, by what means should it acquire

that wealth which might enable it to remunerate foreigners for their commodities? and that this source of its ability was, and still is, in the power of Britain, may easily be demonstrated.

Foreign colonies belonging to Holland, were——some in the West Indies, the Cape, Ceylon, the Spice Islands, Batavia, &c.

Those in the West-Indies had been taken, and occupied by the British, some years ago; when a British capital of nearly, or quite, £20,000,000 had been employed in improving them. This naturally led to British connections: and the interest of this capital was a debt due to Britain; to be paid before any *profits* could be thought on. Add to this, the customary expenses attending all governments, and some peculiar to the most considerable of these settlements, such as, the necessity of maintaining a force capable of overawing the run away negroes established in the woods, and we shall perceive that the wealth derived from the West-Indies by Holland could be but very moderate.

The commerce of the Cape of Good Hope never was worth mentioning, in a national point of view. The importance of the Cape consists in its situation, as being a kind of half-way house, where vessels bound to India, (Batavia, &c.) find succour and refreshment. The directors of the British East-India Company gave up, without reluctance, at the peace of Amiens; because, their ships were under no necessity of calling there, being prepared adequately to the voyage, and visiting other ports on their passage: but the Dutch ships *must* make the Cape, as they sail slower than the English, and are more liable to disorders among their crews, from which alone the land can relieve them. Moreover, whoever possesses the Cape, and stations a cruising fleet there, commands the high naval road to the east, and interrupts all commerce but what he protects. If then, the commerce of Holland with her eastern possessions was interrupted, or the accommodation of those who engaged in it was abridged, Batavia, with its dependencies, was proportionately diminished in value. And this was to them a serious evil; because, Batavia as a seat of commerce is not what it was: 1. The expenses of government are more, while the commerce of the place is less: 2. The port, which was its glory, is filling up. The spice islands, too, have lost much of their importance; because, 1. They have suffered by the inroads of the English: 2. The spices themselves have been transplanted to other countries, so that these productions are no longer exclusively found in the Dutch islands. Ceylon, which furnishes cinnamon, &c. is British property. We may, therefore, safely infer, that the east was not likely to pour an abundance of riches into the lap of Holland, while England detained her present possions.

We refer to Panorama, p. 681, in proof that the European establishment of Holland has suffered in its very vitals: 1. As its carrying trade is diminished: 2. As its independence, and consequently its political dignity, is now out of the question: 3. As the recovery of its mercantile connections to a political extent is extremely problematical. To these considerations may be added others, arising from the actual state not so much of the inhabitants as of the country: and these we shall now submit to the reader.

Dec. 5, 1806, the following observations were addressed from the Dutch King to the Dutch States: their authority, therefore, is indisputable. "We cannot conceal that, independently of the *enormous imposts* which render the situation of our subjects so afflicting, the suppression of all the neutral flags, and particularly the general blockade, *have annihilitated the last resources of commerce.* As to the finances,—we are justly astonished at the prodigality of expenses, and the want of economy.—We attribute this to party-spirit. Holland has been every year *in danger of losing its existence*, political and *natural.*"

We shall not here repeat what we have said concerning the general *languor* of commerce in Holland: commerce will long continue *in transitu* there: but not, comparatively, in a flourishing state. The danger of Holland's *losing its natural existence* has been noticed, and commented on by several; but none has yet explained the full import of the phrase. To us, it appears to refer to two distinct objects: the first is the conservation of the dykes, the artificial defences of this country from the Ocean; these require, annually, great reparations, and of course great sums of money. These sums have

been of late years but ill paid; and the works have been accordingly, ill executed. Should an uncommon storm produce breaches, the extent of the evil would be prodigious, and probably beyond the power of this state to repair.

We have seen (Panorama, p. 412,) that the port of Amsterdam is threatened with being choked up, by an increasing accumulation of mud; and it is suspected, that the rivers which pass through this country, and have greatly contributed to its riches, are gradually filling up with *silt*, sand, &c. in different places, forming *bars*. If both these evils should prevail, broken dykes, and shallowed rivers, the *natural* existence of Holland, a country wrested from the sea, must inevitably incur great danger. And both these evils are avoidable only by labour, which must be paid for, the funds for which payment must ultimately be derived from commerce. There is, then, a peculiar emphasis in the language of the French negociator (Panorama, p. 877), supposing that Holland were deprived of its colonies, what could maintain such a nation, *having nothing but debts and no commerce?* We presume that a statement, not remote in its reasonings from those we have here adduced, was among the *new circumstances* which M. Talleyrand assigned to Lord Yarmouth as causes of his tergiversation.

We shall now direct our attention to the state of those dominions over which another branch of the Buonaparté family has been placed by the *fiat* of his imperial brother.

On contemplating the state of the kingdom of Naples, we shall find grounds for many of the same inferences, as those we have made concerning Holland. The revenues of this kingdom, used to be taken at about £750,000: and though the present king may not think himself bound to pay the creditors of the state, to whom more than half of this revenue was mortgaged, yet the expenses of his government, the little dependence he can place on the loyalty of his subjects, which implies an extensive *espionage*, and some *douceurs*, either openly or secretly, with the almost total stagnation of commerce in his dominions, will, of course, impoverish his finances. Nor is this all; for though the Italian provinces of the Neapolitan government produce corn, wine, oil, silk, wool, and fruit, yet the major part of these articles which was consumed in Naples came from Sicily, by sea, rather than from the interior, by land; and the customs on these importations formed a considerable portion of the royal receipts. Naples had few or no manufactories worth mentioning, in regard to exportation; of course, its commerce was a trifle. The burden, also, of superintending, and occasionally (in policy) of supporting 30,000 houseless Lazaroni, must be felt by the new sovereign, on whom the effect of suspended commerce falls with all its weight. The taxes were enormous: even the silks, when manufactured, paid 25 per cent, if sent from one province to another. To diminish these taxes, is to diminish the revenue; to increase them, is to extinguish commerce entirely. Nor had the people of this country that just sense of the importance of activity in labour, which might serve as a foundation for better regulations. A multitude of ecclesiastics, was unfavourable to labour. A multitude of festival days was an incredible interruption to labour. The heat of the climate is an absolute prohibition to labour; and the very fertility of the country confirmed in the inhabitants habits of expecting—without exerting themselves to insure the attainment of their expectations. The ecclesiastics, monks, and nuns, were reckoned at about 110,000: being one in thirty-six of the population; and, in the city of Naples, nearly one in twenty. Under these embarrassments, the first considerable exercise of the new sovereign's power has been, to suppress three of the best endowed convents, that he might receive their revenues; a pretty clear proof of the necessities of his treasury! The taxes drawn from the Calabrias cannot lately have been effective, nor from ravaged countries can they soon be rendered so: the stores in the public magazines have been exhausted, in securing the coasts. Of his fleet, indeed, we hear nothing; but it is clear, that if the king endeavours to form a maritime strength, he incurs fresh expenses, to an amount which his kingdom has no means of defraying. The nature of the tenures in this sovereignty, the low state of husbandry, the superstitions, and other lazinesses of the people, who content themselves with a bare existence, will long be insuperable obstacles

to all the adroitness which the French can exert, and all the activity which Gallic vivacity can inspire.

We are now prepared to consider Sicily as of great importance to the possessor of Naples. This island is not only valuable by its productions, but by situation, also; it commands the whole Italian coast; can at any time effect incursions in any point; can keep up a correspondence with the interior of the country: affords a sure retreat for mal-contents: and, while in the hands of a power possessing shipping, it renders the whole Neapolitan dominions insecure. But, even supposing that no attempts were to be feared from it, the exportation of Sicilian commodities to any other place than Naples, the detention of Sicilian corn from Naples, and the non-importation of Neapolitan productions into Sicily, would render the Italian territories insufficient to support a monarch. The knowledge of this, justly alarmed Bonaparte's brother, and added to the perplexities of Bonaparte himself. These suggestions are independent of any results from the formation of British connections in Sicily; from the succession of a more vigorous prince than the present, to the Sicilian throne; or from any obstacle which Sicily might prove to the projects of Bonaparte on the provinces of Greece.

By the mention of Greece, we are led to the consideration of a third sovereignty, which is implicated in the conduct of Talleyrand and Bonaparte. In Lord Yarmouth's dispatch of June 13, his Lordship states his enquiry of M. T. "whether the French government would guarantee the integrity of the Ottoman Empire?" The answer was, "yes, but it must be soon——*Beaucoup se prépare, mais rien n'est fait*, much is preparing, but nothing is executed." This incautious expression of M. T. explains clearly what Bonaparte means, when he talks of guaranteeing the integrity, the independence, &c. of the Turkish dominions. He intends to render them as independent on himself, as Holland, Italy, or perhaps, as Spain! This he will find difficult to accomplish, while England holds Malta and Sicily, and Russia holds Cattaro and Corfou. He can send no fleet from Toulon to the Morea, without hazarding a rencontre at Malta. He can march no army from Dalmatia, without committing its safety, unless accompanied by a fleet; neither dare he leave Cattaro in the rear of his army, marching by land, without exposing himself to absolute ruin, in case of a reverse.

It is difficult to say, whether Bonaparte depends on the professions of the Greeks, in favour of liberty: if he does, we think them very likely to fail him, when most needed. But, we may safely infer, the little vigour possessed by that power, which suffers rebellion, year after year, to occupy its fairest provinces, and to desolate those which are unfortunately its neighbours. More than one revolt at this time, weakens and ravages the Turkish empire. We cannot estimate very highly the opposition which this power could make to the arms of France, unless the necessity of events should call out some man of superior intellect, vigour, and good fortune, whose enlightened understanding might turn to account those capabilities of which this empire is not yet wholly deprived, and that strength which is rather shrouded in its imbecility than absolutely departed from it. Such a man *may* arise: and then—woe to every Frenchman found on Ottoman territory! That the Sultan himself is not that man, neither has yet fixed his eye on any one answering to this character, we infer, from M Pouqueville's description of Sultan Selim. He is, says that writer, "just, humane, but anxious; —*this sovereign has constantly in his imagination the idea of a disastrous futurity. During the last ten years he frequently sheds tears at the state of the empire under his sway; and the greater his knowledge, the deeper is his conviction of the inferiority of his subjects to Europeans.* The various revolts in his empire leave him no rest; the last war plunged him into perpetual alarms; and his resolution unhappily fluctuates too frequently for a situation only fitted for the most determined mind."

A weeping sovereign, most assuredly, is not the hero to revive an empire of half civilized subjects: with a rebellion, assuming a religious character, rising up to defy his power in Arabia; another struggling for political preponderance in Egypt; a third and a fourth in Servia, and the adjacent provinces, under Passwan Oglu, and Czerni Georges. — Various other insurrections reduce the Ottoman

authority to shadowy titles, instead of efficacy; to the enumeration of provinces—invaded by its own officers, now in revolt; and of towns—the inhabitants of which refuse to obey the mandates of their master, and lord.

We intend on a future opportunity to introduce such representations from late travellers, as may justify this account of the situation of the Turkish empire. We could not have believed the degree of insubordination extant in many of the Turkish provinces, and pervading their population, if we had not had, beside various published accounts, the advantage of perusing the MSS. of British officers, whose services to that government were performed amidst perils and dangers, arising no less from friends than from foes.

It is proper, here, that we should notice the date of the change in Bonaparte's politics. He had suffered the Dutch colonial possessions held by England, to have been, at first, so determinately mentioned in the conferences, and in written evidence, that nothing could be done, in *a direct manner*, by way of recovering them; and his idea was, if we may judge by his later actions, to compensate the privation of these, by encreasing the territories of Holland, on the side of Germany. But, there were no territories in Italy which could compensate Sicily to Naples. The commanding position of that island, its accessibility to British assistance, by means of a fleet, and the *check* which the occupier of it would always possess on operations in the Levant, rendered the expulsion of the English, with that of the present sovereign, and the admission of the French, absolutely necessary. The idea of exchanging other dominions for this, was started, though unsuccessfully; but, supposing it had been accomplished, a new difficulty had *now* arisen in the capture of Buenos Ayres, from Spain. The London Gazette, communicating this event, was published September 13. And the first direct written refusal on the part of Talleyrand, was delivered to Lord Lauderdale, Sept. 18. In this interval of five or six days, the intelligence must have reached Paris. Bonaparte, unable, *consistently with his schemes*, to propose an equivalent for Sicily, *only*, found himself still more perplexed to propose equivalents for Buenos Ayres *also*: yet, unless this colony was restored to Spain, he would not have made a peace "honourable for his allies." The ill-humour into which this perplexity appears to have thrown him, marked the paper which Talleyrand brought from St. Cloud, and probably composed there, in conjunction with Bonaparte: and it should seem, that the idea of still further conquests being made by Britain, for which he could imagine no compensation, *consistently with his schemes*, as already observed, was the turning point on which his mind revolved from *some* desire of peace, to an abandonment of that desire, persuaded that war would answer his purposes better.

It may be true then, that "the Emperor *himself* coveted nothing that England possessed:" but it is equally true, that his connections forbad him from accepting the terms of *uti possidetis*; since *they* perceived their inconvenience, though *he* did not.

We might prolong these remarks by particularizing those other states which Bonaparte intends to subject to great changes, such as Switzerland and Portugal; but these do not appear to have been prominent considerations in the negociation before us. Neither shall we enquire what progress his misunderstanding with Prussia was now making. The probability is, that the free surrender of Hanover to its lawful sovereign by Bonaparte, disgusted Prussia, who saw this loss replaced by nothing adequate. She now held Hanover: but was commanded to resign it: and this resignation vexing her avidity, she grumbled so loudly, that her *friend* thought proper to teach her better manners. But these, with other considerations, involved, we doubt not, in the labyrinth of politics, we wave, and content ourselves with having elucidated those which more intimately concerned us as Britons.

We presume that we have now explained the reasons, which induced M. Talleyrand to consider "change of circumstances" [he should have said "farther information;" as indeed he does, in conversation with Lord Yarmouth, June 19, "the Emperor had received reports from his brother, and the general officers under his orders, stating that *Naples could*

not be held without Sicily,"] as reasons for a partial change of terms!—and to observe, "that Bonaparte had been but lately convinced, *and felt more and more the absolute necessity of obtaining Sicily, to make Naples and the neighbouring territories tenable.*" We have explained, too, his meaning in the phrase of making a peace "honourable to the two Courts, *and their respective allies:*" and moreover, we have shewn clearly the reasons, why "Prince Louis, on accepting the crown of Holland, formally declared his intention of renouncing it, *if the Dutch colonies were not restored at the general peace.*"

As none of these ideas have been presented to the country in any other publication, we take a pleasure in submitting them by the present article. If they should appear to our readers equally well founded as we suppose them to be, we doubt not but they will meet with a candid acceptance; we shall be rewarded with the consciousness of having performed our duty, with the applause of those who are capable of appreciating our exertions; and with the honour of the continuation of that confidence with which the public has eminently distinguished our work.

Communications to the Board of Agriculture; on Subjects relating to Husbandry, and internal Improvement of the Country. Vol. V. Part I. 4to. pp. 334. London. Nicol, &c. 1806.

AGRICULTURE is of the first importance to a nation. That under peculiar circumstances Commerce may support a people, must be admitted while we have the instance of Holland before our eyes. But an *extensive* kingdom, and a numerous population, must depend for supplies on cultivation of the field. Errors in agriculture are serious: improvements in agriculture are valuable. The diffusion of knowledge among that class of the community which attaches itself to these labours is extremely desirable, and the communications of a number of intelligent practitioners to one central repertory, cannot fail of producing, at length, a stock, from which many particular benefits must be derived. Such is the intention of the Board of Agriculture: and the contents of the present Part fully justify this intention.

This is the first part of a fifth volume published by the Board: we shall not direct our attention to the former, but content ourselves with reporting the principa subjects of the part before us.

The first article is an account of *Improvements made on a Moss*, by John Wilkinson, Esq. of Castlehead, in Lancashire. Among other things, we learn, that by the embankment of Lancaster sands, at an expence from 150,000*l.* to 200,000*l.* about 38,710 acres might be recovered from the sea, which, when improved would be worth 1,340,000*l.* Mr. Wilkinson nobly offered to subscribe 50,000*l.* towards this national undertaking. Mr. W. gives the delineation of a patten for horses, adapted to mossy, and boggy soils. There are some good observations in this paper.

But, in our opinion, the chief value of this volume arises from the view it affords of the comparative prices of labour, and other expences, attending the cultivation of land, between the years 1790 and 1803. We shall give as an instance, the price of

BEDFORDSHIRE, LABOUR.

	1790 £	s.	d.	1804 £	s.	d.
Price in winter	0	6	10	0	9	4
Price in summer	0	9	0	0	12	8
Price in harvest	0	11	9½	0	15	3½
Head man's wages	9	12	0	13	13	4½
Second man's ditto	5	12	0	7	10	8½
Reaping wheat, per acre	0	6	7	0	11	0
Mowing barley	0	1	8½	0	2	8½
Threshing wheat, per quarter	0	2	2	0	3	10½
Threshing barley	0	1	4½	0	3	2½
Filling earth, per yd.	0	0	3½	0	0	5½
Filling dung, per load	0	0	1½	0	0	2½

The same calculations are continued throughout all the counties of England: the average shewing a rise of from 36 to 58 per cent. in various branches of labour.

BEDFORDSHIRE, ARTISANS.

		1790 s.	d.	1804 s.	d.
Blacksmith,	Tire per lb.	0	3	0	5½
	Plough irons, do.	0	4½	0	6½
	Chains, do.	0	5	0	5½
	Shoeing, do.	0	5	0	6½
Carpenter,	by day	1	9	2	5
Mason,	do.	1	6½	2	3½
Thatcher,	do	1	9½	2	6½
Collar-maker's-work		1	5	2	0½

Average rise per cent. from 30 to 50.

BEDFORDSHIRE, RENT, TITHE, PARISH TAXES.

	1790 to 1804	
Rise of rent from 68¼ per cent.	s. d.	s. d.
Tithe per acre	3 0	5 5
Parish taxes in the £.	3 0¾	4 6½

Average rise per cent. from 39 to 89.

BEDFORDSHIRE, CULTIVATION.

	1790 £ s. d.	1804 £ s. d.
Acre of turnips	3 14 6	5 0 6
Acre of barley	2 19 2	4 1 2
Acre of wheat	4 0 10	5 2 6
Manure	0 3 0	0 4 7½

Average rise per cent. from 36 to 62.

Taking the average rise per cent. throughout England, it appears that the increased expences on the whole stand thus: *(Fractions omitted.)*

Labour in winter		36⅓
Labour in summer		38⅓
Price in harvest		44
Head man's wages		42
Second man's wages		41
Reaping wheat		54
Mowing barley		58
Threshing wheat		54⅓
Threshing barley		50⅔
Filling earth		51
Filling dung		52
Average		47
Blacksmith Tire		34½
Plough irons		33
Chains		35
Shoeing		36
Average		35
Carpenter		50
Mason		47
Thatcher		45
Collar-maker		41½
Average		41
Rent		39
Tithe		48
Parish taxes		89
Average		59½
Acre of turnips		38
Acre of barley		39
Acre of wheat		36
Average		38
Manure		62
The whole averages		52

SCOTLAND (EAST LOTHIAN), LABOUR.

	1790 £ s. d.	1804 £ s. d.
Winter, per week	0 5 6	0 9 0
Summer do.	0 5 6	0 9 0
Harvest do.	0 6 0	0 9 0
Head man, *Kincardine Shire*, ann.	8 0 0	14 0 0
Second man	6 0 0	10 0 0
Reaping wheat, per acre	0 5 0	0 8 0
Mowing barley, do.	0 4 6	0 8 0
Threshing wheat, per quarter	0 1 0	0 6 0
Threshing barley, do.	0 0 8	0 1 0
Filling earth, per yd.	0 0 4	0 0 6
Filling dung, per load	0 0 2	0 0 3

ARTISANS.

	s. d.	s. d.
Blacksmith, Tire per lb.	doubled.	
Plough irons, do.	doubled.	
Chains, do.	0 5	0 7
Shoeing	0 6	0 8
Carpenter, by day	1 6	2 9
Mason, do.	1 6	2 9
Thatcher, do	2 0	2 6
Collar-maker, do,	1 6	3 6

CULTIVATION.

	s. d.	s. d.
Acre of turnips increased as	13 to 24	
Acre of barley	the same,	
Acre of wheat	the same.	
Manure	2 6	5 0

RENT AND PARISH TAXES.

	s. d.	s. d.
Rise of rent	doubled.	
Parish taxes	1 7½	2 11

Average increase throughout Scotland.

Rent	73
Rates	69
Labour	56
Artisans	65
Manure	89
Average increase per cent.	70

T. A. Knight, Esq. *Herefordshire*, mentions an increase of tithe, within fourteen years, of 556 per cent.

Much additional information is selected from the letters in which the above particulars were communicated. Among other things, we are sorry to learn, that

The late tax on malt has not only lowered the price of barley, consequently has checked its cultivation, but also precludes the poor man, and the next class of housekeepers, from brewing; and is a strong inducement to the common brewers to give their beer an intoxicating quality, *without malt*; as well as to encourage the use of spirits. p. 41. The supervisor at Chichester reports, that more than half the malt-houses in his district are shut up; indeed, it cannot be otherwise, when the duty is 36s. per quarter, or 150 per cent. on the present price of barley, 24s. There are now brewers' chemists (see a pamphlet written by one Childs on this subject), where you may

be supplied with *colouring*, *i. e.* sugar boiled down to the consistence of pitch; *bitters*, which is also sugar heated in a brass cauldron, till red hot; *heading*, and many other articles: so that not above one bushel of malt in four is used for this liquor. p. 72. Since the increased duty on malt, the lime kilns at Rudborough, near Petworth, formerly worked at Candlemas, for lime to be laid on the barley ground, have not been used this spring for that purpose, there being no demand for lime. —*Ib.*

Very many farmers have malting conveniencies, by means whereof they can malt not only their own growth, but much more—they can *run* floorings of malt with scarce any chance of detection; and it is a fact, that this is done to a very great extent. I am well assured, that malt can *be bought* in distant counties, and *carried to Bristol*, on cheaper terms *than it can be made there*. The smuggler makes *better* malt, which makes better beer, than the fair trader. pp. 85, 86. Charles Hassall, Esq. *Pembrokeshire.*

We need say nothing in explanation of the magnitude and importance of this evil; which, should it become *popular*, as it is not, we hope, at present, will defy all the power and skill of the excise to subdue it.

Our readers will observe, that the calculations we have transcribed refer to corn; and that, were corn *only* in question, the inference would be undeniable, that agriculture is in a fair way to become unprofitable. But, in fact, a farmer draws his profits from various sources; and his *sufferings* by one kind of crop are compensated by his *enjoyments* from another. He deals in animal food as well as in corn, and this sometimes proves more advantageous than the *direct* produce of land. If he sells his beef and mutton to a profit, this is a part of his business; if his pork, or his veal, he is still a farmer.—Different districts have, no doubt, different inconveniencies; and in some places the rates and expences are extremely onerous. But the rates in town keep, at least, equal pace with those in the country: and when *manufactures* are stagnant, the evil is pregnant with distresses of a severer kind than those of what a farmer calls a bad time. Tithes, undoubtedly, also, as several correspondents with the Board observe, are burdens on agriculture; but no one has suggested a better mode of accomplishing the purposes of this impost. In Scotland however, there are neither poor laws nor tithes;——what then is reported from the North?

Mr. Robert May writes from the county of *Mearns*, in Scotland, that in *this* district the price of labour is 93 per cent. higher than in 1790, yet the farmers are thriving. This he explains by observing, that this neighbourhood rears or feeds many cattle, of which Glasgow market makes no small consumption, being about

Bullocks, cows, and heifers	7538
Veals - - - -	6740
Sheep - - - -	27316
Lambs - - - -	29621
Hogs, or swine - -	329
	71544

The prices of all these, hogs excepted, are upwards of 150 per cent. higher now than in 1790.—The produce of the dairy has also advanced more than 110 per cent. It is a moderate calculation to say, a farmer will profit by each cow £12 per annum. From the improvement of all kinds of utensils, &c. the same quantity of work is performed with a less number of men and horses: *formerly*, four horses were used to each plough, with a driver; *now*, few have any driver, and, mostly, two horses are sufficient.—The breed of horses also is improved. The work being better done, the land produces more than formerly. But these advantages are not general throughout Scotland. Poor's rates very light.

STATEMENT OF THE POOR'S HOUSE AT GLASGOW, MARCH, 1804.

In the Charity-house - -	400
Children and frail people at nurse	393
Families receiving support -	435

The expense of this charity was last year £4663 13*s.* 7*d.* The fund is raised by an assessment on the monied interest within the city; no person is assessed unless his property amounts to £300. Last year's assessment was 2*s.* 2*d.* per £100 upon £4,015,400.

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So that, Smithfield market has, principally within fifty years, doubled the weight of flesh sold in it.

The reader will consider this statement in connection also with our account of the supply of this article in the days of Queen Elizabeth, Panorama, p. 240. We understand, that Mr. Mellish the contractor, has, in many successive years, delivered 3,500 oxen, in seven months, to the government stores: which differs greatly from the estimate of Mr. Edward Baishe, 1586.

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Every burden, which the necessity of the state has imposed since 1773, has been a direct tax on the plough, and consequently operated as a bounty on turning land from tillage to grazing. The increasing demand

be supplied with *colouring*, *i. e.* sugar boiled down to the consistence of pitch; *bitters*, which is also sugar heated in a brass cauldron, till red hot; *heading*, and many other articles: so that not above one bushel of malt in four is used for this liquor. p. 72. Since the increased duty on malt, the lime kilns at Rudborough, near Petworth, formerly worked at Candlemas, for lime to be laid on the barley ground, have not been used this spring for that purpose, there being no demand for lime. —*Ib.*

Very many farmers have malting conveniencies, by means whereof they can malt not only their own growth, but much more—they can *run* floorings of malt with scarce any chance of detection; and it is a fact, that this is done to a very great extent. I am well assured, that malt can *be bought* in distant counties, and *carried to Bristol*, on cheaper terms *than it can be made there*. The smuggler makes *better* malt, which makes better beer, than the fair trader. pp. 85, 86. Charles Hassall, Esq. *Pembrokeshire.*

We need say nothing in explanation of the magnitude and importance of this evil; which, should it become *popular*, as it is not, we hope, at present, will defy all the power and skill of the excise to subdue it.

Our readers will observe, that the calculations we have transcribed refer to corn; and that, were corn *only* in question, the inference would be undeniable, that agriculture is in a fair way to become unprofitable. But, in fact, a farmer draws his profits from various sources; and his *sufferings* by one kind of crop are compensated by his *enjoyments* from another. He deals in animal food as well as in corn, and this sometimes proves more advantageous than the *direct* produce of land. If he sells his beef and mutton to a profit, this is a part of his business; if his pork, or his veal, he is still a farmer.—Different districts have, no doubt, different inconveniencies; and in some places the rates and expences are extremely onerous. But the rates in town keep, at least, equal pace with those in the country: and when *manufactures* are stagnant, the evil is pregnant with distresses of a severer kind than those of what a farmer calls a bad time. Tithes, undoubtedly, also, as several correspondents with the Board observe, are burdens on agriculture; but no one has suggested a better mode of accomplishing the purposes of this impost. In Scotland however, there are neither poor laws nor tithes;——what then is reported from the North?

Mr. Robert May writes from the county of *Mearns*, in Scotland, that in *this* district the price of labour is 93 per cent. higher than in 1790, yet the farmers are thriving. This he explains by observing, that this neighbourhood rears or feeds many cattle, of which Glasgow market makes no small consumption, being about

Bullocks, cows, and heifers	7538
Veals - - - -	6740
Sheep - - - -	27316
Lambs - - - -	29621
Hogs, or swine - -	329
	71544

The prices of all these, hogs excepted, are upwards of 150 per cent. higher now than in 1790.—The produce of the dairy has also advanced more than 110 per cent. It is a moderate calculation to say, a farmer will profit by each cow £12 per annum. From the improvement of all kinds of utensils, &c. the same quantity of work is performed with a less number of men and horses: *formerly*, four horses were used to each plough, with a driver; *now*, few have any driver, and, mostly, two horses are sufficient.—The breed of horses also is improved. The work being better done, the land produces more than formerly. But these advantages are not general throughout Scotland. Poor's rates very light.

STATEMENT OF THE POOR'S HOUSE AT GLASGOW, MARCH, 1804.

In the Charity-house - -	400
Children and frail people at nurse	393
Families receiving support -	435

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for workmen, for our manufactories, has united with other causes to enhance the price of labour, and operated as a further check upon agriculture. p. 145.

He informs us that the number of horses that pay duty is 1,178,000, but he thinks this number should be considerably encreased. He estimates their annual consumption of food as requiring

	Acres ea.	Acres.
200,000 pleasure horses	6	1,200,000
30,000 cavalry - -	5	150,000
1,000,000 husbandry -	4	4,000,000
200,000 colts, mares, &c.	3	600,000
1,430,000		5,950,000

But he thinks that, 1,500,000 acres might be spared from the pastures appropriated to horses and cattle.—So that, if the labouring horses were fed on potatoes, carrots, and straw, and milch cows, and fattening cattle with green food, Mr. C. thinks that the quantity of acres mentioned above as what might be converted to the produce of human food, would be justified.

Mr. C. also states the gain of victual to the public, by converting the produce of land into milk, instead of into corn, at more than 4 to 1, which may tend to moderate the apprehensions of those who see nothing but calamity in the diminution of tillage, and the increase of pasture.

Sir Joseph Banks has a paper on the cultivation of spring wheat, which we recommend to the attention of the practical farmer. This grain is valuable, and on certain occasions, on certain soils, exposures, &c. offers resources which may prove of the utmost importance to the community. The board has proposed premiums for its culture; and the knowledge of its advantages is increasing. Other experimentalists have also considered this subject. Freedom from mildew is a great recommendation of this species.

A paper on the mildew, by Mr. Jones of Somersetshire, deserves attentive consideration. This gentleman thinks that frost is the primary cause of this disease: that it acts by means of heavy and extensive dews, which being frozen, expand, whereby they chill and *crack* the parts of the plant on which they have settled. This, with other effects allied to the operations of frost, Mr. J. supposes to affect late-sown wheats, and others not sufficiently forward to repel the attack. Thinking too, that the harvests are now later than heretofore, he considers the plants as being more exposed to this disease.

An essay on the cultivation of potatoes, by the Rev. Edmund Cartwright, is perfectly well calculated to puzzle philosophers; not, indeed, from the modes of culture recommended, but, from the varieties of sorts produced by a single seed, when that method of raising potatoes is resorted to. Mr. C. inform us, that

In the year 1804 he raised eighty-four plants from seedlings of the preceding year, all from the same kind of potatoe. The produce of scarcely any two roots was alike, either in form, colour, size, or taste. Some ripened early in August; others were not ripe even when the frost set in; some were very prolific, others but moderately so; some were so rank and offensive to the palate as scarcely to be eatable; and others again (but these were few in number, not more than three or four) were equal to the best potatoes now in use. One of them, indeed, was of so superior a quality, that, unless it should degenerate on further cultivation, it will eclipse almost every other species known.

On what principle shall we account for these different propensities in the offspring of the same root? The *seeds* of the same individual plant, are sure, when cultivated, to produce many and very distinct varieties: yet the *cuttings* of this plant are expected to resemble each other in the fruit which they produce. This essay is valuable; it treats the subject at large, and in a commendable order.

"Potatoes which cut hard, or woody, will infallibly produce *curled* plants: while such as yield freely to the knife, may be expected to produce healthy ones." The practical cultivator knows the value of such remarks.

Mr. W. Pitt, of Wolverhampton, has contributed a paper on the subject of weeds; but some of what this worthy writer calls *weeds*, are capable of being turned to very good account. We must pass this article in order to mention another, by the same author, on the consumption of corn in Britain, and the means of increasing human subsistence.

Mr. P. takes a general and enlarged view of his subject, in which we cannot follow him; but must content ourselves with general commendation. It may, however, be proper to communicate a few extracts to our readers.

The average price of the best wheat in

Windsor market from 1688 to 1700, was per bushel, - - - - 5*s.* 9*d.*
From 1700 to 1764 - - 4 6
From 1731 to 1740 - - 4 2
From 1741 to 1750 - - 3 9

During the last ten years, the exports of grain were 8,029,156 quarters. Bounty 1,514,962, produce of about 200,000 acres.

For nineteen years ending 1765, Britain gained by its corn trade, per annum £651,000.

From 1765 to 1776, exports and imports were nearly equal. — In 1777 the import prevailed by 357,147 quarters.

Since that time import has regularly continued, to the annual loss, ending 1797 of £600,000. To grow the grain then imported, would require an increased cultivation of 148,064 acres. The imports of 1796, cost the nation, bounties included £4,500,000, those of 1801 are stated at, quarters 2,623,162. Value £12,919,020. Produce of acres 871,738. Besides Indian corn, meal, and rice.

The prices of corn were in

	s.	*d.*
1797 Wheat, per bushel	6	6
1798 ———	7	-
1799 Lady-day - -	6	3
—— Michaelmas -	9	-
—— Christmas - -	13	-
1800 Michaelmas -	13	3
—— Christmas - -	16	4
1801 March - - -	19	3
—— June - - -	16	1
—— September - -	11	1
1802 Average - -	8	4½
1803 Do. - -	7	-
1804 First 7 months	6	6
—— Last 4 months	10	9
1805 Average - -	11	-

Population of Great Britain, about

England - - -	8,322,545
Wales - - - -	544,375
Scotland - -	1,600,000
	10,466,920

Agricultural population Mr. P. estimates at 46 in 100. Commercial population at 54 in 100. Number of houses in England, 1,467,870. Of families 1,778,420. Square miles 55,833, inhabitants to each, 152. France contains inhabitants on a square mile, 157. Naples, 203. China, 251.

Mr. P. states the population in 1688 at 4½ millions. The increased population since that period has unquestionably required a proportionate increase of cultivation: and it might be thought that *this* increase had not taken place, whence the necessity for importation; but, the suddenness of the change from exportation to importation refutes this argument. If our population be increased, if *grass* land pays better than *corn* land, if our manufactures drain away our hands from the plough, if what can be enticed from labour are converted into soldiers or sailors, by the circumstances of the times, the necessity of our importing corn ceases, at once, to be a wonder.

Mr. P. also considers butcher's meat, with the quantity of land necessary to sustain the consumption of this kind of food: also, horses, their necessity, and support: improvements of various kinds: bounties, public granaries, and several other subjects.

We cannot resist our inclination to transcribe another passage.

Quantity of land necessary to subsist 8,000,000 *of people in England, according to the present mode of living.* Acres.

Bread corn - -	3,000,000
Barley, for drink -	1,500,000
Potatoes, &c. - -	500,000
Grass land, for butcher's meat - - -	12,000,000
Grass land dairy -	4,000,000
	21,000,000

Supposing other consumers to require 5,000,000 of acres, this makes 26,000,000: which is about the quantity of land in cultivation. The waste land is supposed to be about 6,000,000 acres.

The energy of our cultivation, then, should be directed to the utmost improvement of the lands at present under husbandry: to a frugal use of our means of supporting those animals which circumstances induce us to retain; to the adoption of viands independent of the produce of land; to the accession of new lands; and to the diminution of such expenses as can be diminished on the productions now raised. Agriculture demands protection, encouragement, and honour. Our readers will perceive that the view we have set before them is not general as to all the resources of the kingdom, but particular, as to one very important branch of them. This is the province of the Board of Agriculture, and it gives us great pleasure to see, that the attention of this institution is directed to objects of magnitude and national interest; while the Correspondents of this establishment, in seconding the views of those who preside in it, have manifested a spirit and ability, which does them great honour.

Memorabilia of Perth; with the Rev. Alexander Duff's (late of Tibbermuir) traditional Account in the Town of Perth, of the Death of John, Earl of Gowrie, and his Brother, Mr. Alexander Ruthven, in 1600. 8vo. pp. 366, with a Map of the Town, and other Plates. Price 10s. Boards. Morison, Perth, 1806.

PERTH contends for the distinction of sitting on the right hand of the Lord Provost of Edinburgh, in the convention of Burghs. This prerogative Glasgow disputes. Perth founds its pretensions on superior antiquity; on having been long the seat of royalty, and on various privileges derived from the Scottish monarchs. This volume leaves the point undetermined; and, most certainly, we shall not deviate from the same prudence. Perth, however, is an interesting city, and of late years, the improvements made in it, and the enlargements added to it in various places, have kept pace with that general spirit of exertion, which has pervaded the whole kingdom.

This volume opens with a guide to, and through, the city and its neighbourhood; marking those stations from whence the best views of the city and its adjacencies may be taken. These are, of course, more interesting to the citizens, or to travellers, than to general readers. Where the ancient abbey of Scone stood, a palace is now erecting; yet part of the aisle of the abbey still remains. The scene of a bloody fight between the Scots and Danes is now converted into a bleach field, believed to be the most extensive in the kingdom. Perth was formerly a place of great consequence in the linen trade; but now attends chiefly to cotton, which is woven in every fabric and quality to a large amount, annually. Not far from Perth is Birnam Hill, where Birnam Wood *was*.

The second division of this work comprises Historical Memoranda, including from the earliest times, when the Romans established here a military station, to the present. On this occasion, we are infallibly presented with Agricola and his army, who, when they first saw the river Tay, and the adjacent plain on which Perth now stands, they cried out with one consent, "*Ecce Tiber! Ecce Campus Martius!*" by what they saw being reminded of Rome, and its river. That General is reported to have pitched his camp on the site of the present city. The history of Perth, with the list of its magistrates follows, and, as may be expected, various city events; especially about the time of the reformation, and the reign of Mary Queen of Scots. The character of that sovereign, we imagine, is not held in great veneration at Perth; as the historian transcribes pretty freely from Buchanan. The congregationalists not only "purged the kirks of idols," formerly, but are held in reverence to this day. The same spirit was active under James and Charles: yet the reception which this city gave to its sovereign, was generally very flattering. The following may serve as an instance of the attention paid to Charles.

His entry into Perth is recorded in the register kept by the Glover-calling, as follows: "His Majesty King Charles, of his gratious favour and love, denzeit (condescended) himself to vizit his own city, and burgh of Perth, the eight day of July, quhair, at the entrie of our South-Inch port, he was receivet honourablie, be the Provest, Bailzies, and Aldermen, and be delivery of an speache mounting to his praize, and thanksgiving, for his Majestie's coming to viseit this our city, wha stayit upon horsebacke, and heard the sameyn patientlie, and therefra, convoyeit be our young men in guard, with partizans clad in red and whyte, to his ludging at the end of the South-gate, (Gowrie's palace), belonging now heritablie to George Earl of Kinnoul, Heigh Chancellor of Scotland, &c. The morrow thairefter came to our churche, and in his royal seat heard ane reverand sermone, immediately thairefter came to his ludgeing, and went downe to the gardine thairof, his Majestie being thayre set upon the wall next the wattir of Tay, quhair uppone was ane fleeting staige of tymber, cled about with birks, upon the quhilke, for his Majestie's welcome and entrie, thretteine of our brethren, of this our calling of Glovers, with green cappis, silver strings, red ribbons, quhyte shoes, and bells about thair leggis, shewing raperis in thair handis, and all uther abulzement, dauncit our sword-daunce, with mony difficile knottis, fyve being under, and fyve above, upone thair shoulderis, three of theme dauncing through thair feet and about them, drinking wine and breking glasses. Quhilk (God be praisit) wes actit and done without hurt or skaith till any. Quhilk drew us till great chairges and expensis, amounting to the sowme of 350 merks, yet not to be rememberit, because graciouslie acceptit be our

Sovereine, and both estatis, to our honour and great commendation."

When Cromwell sat down before Perth, with his army, he found the gates shut. John Davidson, a bold and enterprising gentleman, ordered carts to drive up and down the streets, and a drum to beat continually through the town, and at all the ports, to deceive the English generals. Hereupon the town was summoned, and Cromwell offered honourable terms, which were accepted.

The events of the years 1715 and 1745, are tenderly told; those which promoted the overthrow of popery are more fully related with some curious anecdotes. It appears, however, that certain popish impositions long retained their existence; for, we are told, under the year 1760, that "St. Peter was the tutelar saint of the Fleshers. Before their seat in the kirk, they had an altar illuminated with wax candles. A tax was laid on all slaughtered cattle for supporting St. Peter's altar: they usually called it, "Patie's altarage penny." This tax was regularly exacted till this year, when Provost Gray abolished it. p. 216. Whose property had it been after it ceased to be Peter's, till this time?

Perth appears to suffer occasionally from inundations.

The bridge over the Tay, which is a handsome structure, was begun in the year 1766.

The Seminaries, and some other buildings are, also, deserving of praise.

A considerable article, in this volume, is the traditional account of the death of Earl Gowrie. We approve of the preservation of even traditional accounts: though unsatisfactory, they may contribute to throw light on mysterious transactions. We cannot describe the present as perfectly clear; yet the publication of it is proper. The charters of privileges of Perth, list of ministers, of rectors in the grammar school, account of the Academy, which appears to be a very laudable institution, are given. A list of the subscribers to building the bridge, with those for establishing the Seminaries, concludes the work.

Had the contents of this volume appeared in a pocket size, that would have been in our opinion, more appropriate, both as to convenience, and value, than the present. Yet we think that this city is well entitled to commemoration; and that, abating a little parade, the work is not ill executed.

The Bankrupt and Creditor's Friendly Assistant; or, the Spirit of the Bankrupt Laws, with the Statutes relating to Bankruptcy; Orders for the Proceedings: Rules and Examples for the last Examination, and various useful Observations, by Joseph Montefiori, Solicitor. 8vo. Price 8s. boards. London, Lackington and Co. 1806.

The author of this useful treatise has had frequent opportunities in the course of his profession, to combine practice with theory; and to the mercantile classes of society, as well as to the gentlemen of the law, he has rendered a service by the present publication. It is dedicated by permission to Lord Eldon, the late Lord Chancellor. We may observe, by the way, that permission to dedicate should never be, and seldom is, granted, without a previous inspection, or general approbation of the plan and the subject, by the patron. This remark will enable our readers to distinguish between dedications *without permission*, which convey no sanction to any work; and those which are permitted by persons of distinguished rank and learning, who are competent judges of the merits of the publication they patronise.

The plan of the work under consideration deserves commendation; it has brought the extensive system of the bankrupt laws, within a concise compass, and exhibits them in a clear manner. It may benefit a great number of individuals, whose misfortunes subject them to the unfortunate predicament of bankruptcy, and of a still greater number, who daily run the risk of being the creditors of bankrupts.

The statutes relating to bankruptcy were originally founded on those principles of humanity and equity, which are the basis of the British code of laws, tempering justice with mercy; but like all other human institutions, they have been exposed to many abuses, through the depravity of designing professors of the law; and the artifices of fraudulent and corrupt insolvent debtors. To guard against wrong conceptions and erroneous interpretations, to point out abuses, and to guide the unfortunate, in their application

for legal redress, are the benevolent designs of this volume.

The general reader will readily perceive, that this is not a book, necessarily to be read through page by page, but a compendium of references to be consulted as the various cases of particular persons may require: we therefore, shall not enter into the various details of the explanatory parts of this treatise, but shall lay before our readers such select articles as appear to us to be most extensively useful. Such, for instance, is the abstract from the last act of parliament, the 46th Geo. III. 1806, entitled, *An Act to amend the Laws relating to Bankrupts.*

After reciting that great inconveniences and injustice had been occasioned by reason of the fair and honest dealings and transactions between traders, having been defeated by *secret acts of bankruptcy* in cases not provided, or not sufficiently provided for by law, this statute enacts as follows, *viz.*—— That in all cases of commissions of bankruptcy hereafter to be issued, all *conveyances* by all payments by and to, and *all contracts* and other dealings and transactions by and with, any bankrupt, *bonâ fide* made or entered into *more than two calendar months* before the date of such commission, shall, notwithstanding any prior act of bankruptcy committed by such bankrupt, be good and effectual, to all intents and purposes whatsoever; in like manner, as if no such prior act of bankruptcy had been committed, provided the person or persons so dealing with such bankrupt, had not, at the time of such *conveyance, payment, contracts, dealings, or transactions,* any notice of a prior act of bankruptcy committed by such bankrupt, or that he was insolvent, or had stopped payment.

Before the passing of this act, notorious abuses had been practised by attorneys and counsel, advising creditors under a commission of bankruptcy, to lay claim to, and recover, effects sold and delivered by a bankrupt, who perhaps a year or more before a commission of bankruptcy had issued out against him, had committed some prior act of bankruptcy, unknown to the person or persons who had bought goods of him and actually paid for them; which, being proved, the assignees under the commission were empowered to bring actions for the recovery of such goods, and to oblige the purchaser to come in as a creditor under the commission: on the other hand, goods bought by the bankrupt, after he had committed some act of bankruptcy, on credit, if not paid for when the commission of bankruptcy issued, were considered as the common property of the bankrupt; and the seller was obliged to accept the general dividend, with the rest of the creditors, instead of the whole amount of his debt.

Debts contracted by the bankrupt, before the date of issuing a commission of bankruptcy against him, shall be admitted to be proved, notwithstanding any prior act of bankruptcy, provided the creditor had not, at the time the debt was contracted, any notice of any prior act of bankruptcy, committed by the bankrupt.

In all cases in which under commissions of bankruptcy hereafter to be issued, it shall appear that there has been mutual credit given by the bankrupt and any other person, or *mutual debts* between the bankrupt and any other person, one debt or demand may be set off against another, notwithstanding any prior act of bankruptcy committed by such bankrupt before the credit was given to, or the debt was contracted by such bankrupt, provided such credit was given to the bankrupt *two calendar months* before the date and issuing forth of such commission, and provided the person claiming the benefit of such set-off had not at the time of giving such credit any notice *of any prior act of bankruptcy* by such bankrupt committed, or that he was insolvent, or had stopped payment.

But, the striking of a docket for the purpose of issuing a commission, whether any commission shall have actually issued or not, or the superseding of a commission if issued, shall be deemed proper notice of an act of bankruptcy to the contracting of such mutual debts, and shall set aside the claim of set-offs.

Bankrupts upon obtaining their certificates shall be discharged from all debts, by this act made proveable under such commission, and shall have the benefit of the several statutes now in force against bankrupts, in like manner and to all intents and purposes, as if such *secret act of bankruptcy* had not been committed prior to the contracting such debts.

No commission of bankruptcy that shall be hereafter issued, shall be avoided or defeated by reason of any act of bankruptcy having been committed by the person, or any of the persons, against whom such commission shall have issued, prior to the contracting the debt of the creditor, or any of the creditors, upon whose petition such commission shall have issued, if such petitioning creditor had not any notice of such act of bankruptcy, at the time when the debt due to him was con-

tracted, but that such commission, and all the proceedings under the same, shall be valid and effectual to all intents and purposes notwithstanding such prior act or acts of bankruptcy shall have been committed by such bankrupt.

That creditors and bankrupts may reciprocally enjoy the benefits of this new act, and avoid the fatal consequences of being ignorant of a system of laws of which it has been said, with great truth, "that it is such as may crush the most honest and upright man, if he be ignorant of the conduct he ought to pursue, and fall into the hands of his enemies; while the knowing and designing may find means to evade all the efforts of his creditors to obtain justice;" the best advice and information is of the utmost importance to both parties.

In this publication, a general knowledge of the law on the subject is conveyed in a simple and familiar dress, divested as much as possible of the trappings of technicality, which frequently tend more to perplex than elucidate.

The first point that ought to be clearly understood is, what actions subject a man to become a bankrupt, or in other words, what are *acts of bankruptcy:* these are,

Departing the realm with intent to defraud, and delay creditors; a voluntary departure from the dwelling-house, or secreting one's person, for ever so short a time, if done clearly with an intent to delay creditors, and accompanied by an actual delay to some legal creditor; but it is no act of bankruptcy, if done to avoid an attachment for non-delivery of goods, or process to compel the performance of a mere duty; *it must be respecting the payment of money.*

Keeping house, or staying at home, with intent to defraud, hinder or delay his creditors, is also an act of bankruptcy, if any delay be consequent. The usual evidence of this act of bankruptcy is, proof of his being denied by his own order to a creditor who calls for money, having a debt due and demandable at the time, or his clerk or servant calling on the creditor's behalf, but a denial to a creditor who holds a note, or bill of exchange payable at *a future day,* is no act of bankruptcy. An order to be denied to *every body* includes creditors; and being followed by an actual denial to a creditor, is such a keeping house as constitutes this an act of bankruptcy; and the shortest time is sufficient. "But denial to a creditor, at an unreasonable hour, or in sickness, is no act of bankruptcy." And it is material to observe, that in all the above instances, the *intent to delay,* and the *actual delay* must *concur* to constitute an act of bankruptcy.

Suffering a willing arrest for a fictitious debt, or yielding himself to prison for even a just debt, if done with the intent to defraud, hinder, or delay creditors; or even remaining in prison *involuntarily,* two lunar months (fifty six days) of which the day of arrest is to be reckoned one; or being arrested for £100 or more, on a just debt, and after such arrest, escaping out of prison, are personal acts of bankruptcy.

The following are acts of bankruptcy which relate to, or arise from, *the disposal of the effects.* The willingly or fraudulently procuring goods, monies, or chattels to be attached or sequestered, or the making, or causing to be made, any fraudulent grant or conveyance of lands, tenements, goods, or chattels by deed, to the intent, or whereby his creditors may be defeated or delayed. A disposition, even though fraudulently, of property, merely by delivery or otherwise, without deed, is not an act of bankruptcy.

Any disposition of property by deed, either of the whole or part, made with a view to defeat an equal distribution among creditors, is considered as a fraud, and, as such, held to be an act of bankruptcy; and a general assignment of a trader's effects by deed, though for the benefit of all his creditors, unless they all assent to the deed, has been held to be an act of bankruptcy. The compounding a petitioning creditor's debt by payment, or giving security, whereby such person shall privately receive more in the pound than the other creditors is also an act of bankruptcy, on which another commission may issue, making void that which has been obtained by such petitioner. And the said petitioning creditor receiving goods or other satisfaction or security for his debt, after issuing a commission, from the bankrupt, whereby he shall receive more in the pound than the other creditors, is liable to refund the same, and forfeit his whole debt.

No act done out of England, though by a trader residing in England will sustain a commission. But a person who has left off trade may commit an act of bankruptcy afterwards, with respect to those persons whose debts were contracted during the trading, or existing at that period, having been previously contracted.

Here our author is deficient; for he should have informed us, if the new creditors, after a man has retired from business, can prove their debts under a commission of bankruptcy, obtained by petitioning creditors for debts incurred while he remained in trade.

Friendly commissions are frequently mentioned in conversation, with an idea annexed of fraud, deceit, and collusion,

Mr. M. has therefore very properly observed,

That the law acknowledges no friendly commission, and if the fact of its being so be proved, the commission is set aside; yet nothing is more common than what are called by that familiar appellation. When bankruptcy is unavoidable, the insolvent can scarcely incur blame for endeavouring to procure a friend, to whom he is truly indebted, as the petitioning creditor, in preference to a man who might treat him with severity; as far as he only acts in self defence, and without fraudulent intentions, neither the law of nature, nor the common law of the land, considers this a crime, nor is it punishable by the bankrupt laws. But it is another case, where a person having it in his power to avoid bankruptcy, hurries it on, or procures a petition to be presented against him, in order to become a bankrupt, to suit his own purposes. This is clearly fraudulent, and properly styled *a collusive commission*; yet, the bankrupt laws make no distinction whatever between the two: for either being proved is sufficient to set aside the commission, a man being in no case allowed to co-operate or assist in procuring a commission against himself.

But as it is necessary to guard against collusive bankruptcies calculated to defraud legal creditors, it is no less essential on the part of unfortunate traders to point out the remedy against a *malicious commission*.

Every petitioning creditor in suing for a commission, in order to obtain it, is obliged to give a bond to the Lord Chancellor in the sum of £200 for duly proceeding in the commission, which is called *Striking the Docket*, and if he neglects to get the commission sealed in four days, exclusive of the day of striking the docket, and does not prosecute it, if the bankruptcy is in London, within *fourteen days*, or if in the country within *twenty-eight days*, another commission may be opened making the first void, on the petition of another creditor. Or if it shall appear to the satisfaction of the Lord Chancellor, by the petition of a bankrupt that a malicious commission has been sued out; his lordship may assign over the petitioning creditor's bond to such bankrupt, and he may proceed at law, to obtain redress for the injury, and may recover damages, if proved, beyond the penalty of the bond; but it is in the power of the court of chancery, if the bankruptcy is doubtful, and the commission is superseded, either to direct an enquiry before a master in chancery, of the damages sustained, or to order an issue at law to award damages.

A commission cannot be issued for a debt in equity, it must be for a debt at law.

The petitioning creditor must disburse all costs and charges in prosecuting the commission until assignees are chosen, on failure of which the commission is void.

A trader entering into the service of a foreign minister to the Court of London, to avoid personal arrest for debt, cannot be made a bankrupt.

Upon the breach of an agreement *to transfer stock* at a fixed day, the party may prove a debt under a commission for the value of the stock at the price it bore on that day, provided it was before the bankruptcy.

Respecting annuities; though annuitants are in some cases admitted to prove for the value of their annuities, the court of chancery will give the general creditors an opportunity of objecting on the ground of an inadequate consideration. In the case of annuities on lives, secured by bond, or policy with a penalty, the growing payments being contingent, nothing, strictly speaking, but the monies due can be considered as proveable debts; therefore, an annuitant cannot prove under such bond or policy, unless the condition thereof has been forfeited, by failure in payment at the times stipulated.

The benevolent act of Geo. III. 1793, in favour of *Friendly Societies*, is the last article of importance to be made generally known, through the medium of our circulation.

Persons intrusted with, or having money or effects in hand, dying or becoming bankrupts, the assignee or assignees shall, within forty days after the demand made by order of such society, deliver over to the society all such effects and sums of money due, which the bankrupt received, before any of his other debts are paid or satisfied.

The maxims advanced in this treatise are confirmed by their proper vouchers; such as, acts of parliament, proceedings under commissions of bankruptcy, and orders of successive Lord Chancellors; and under a firm persuasion that a second edition will be required, we suggest the following improvements. It is a well known fact that some attorneys and solicitors, especially such as are newly come into practice, advise the suing out of commissions of bankruptcy, to answer their own private purposes, it being a recommendation in their profession to be *clerks, i. e.* attorneys, under a commission; and to have it in their power thereby, to exhibit *the great seal of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland* on their desks in their chambers. With this view, and for the profits annexed to the charge, their unfortunate clients have been persuaded to sue out commissions in cases,

where the bankrupt's effects, being sold by the assignees, have produced little more than the costs of the commission, and of the proceedings under it; whereas, if the creditors and the insolvent debtor had agreed to a composition, the creditors would have received a handsome dividend; and the reputation of the trader would have been preserved. Mr. Montefiori is therefore desired to state the general and allowed expenses incurred from the suing out of a commission to its completion. This request is founded on cases in which the effects of the bankrupt, did not produce £150, consequently there was not a dividend of *one shilling in the pound*, whereas by a composition, all the creditors, few in number, and small in value, might have received a dividend of *ten shillings in the pound*.

We are sure that we recollect a petition to the Lord Chancellor, that the attorney under such a non-productive commission, and who, as was clearly proved, had advised the issuing of it, should *pay the costs himself*. A few more such instances would be of essential advantage to the property both of bankrupt and creditor.

Œuvres inédites de M. le Président Henault, &c. Works not before published of the President Henault, &c. 1 vol. 8vo.

Few literary men in the last century were more deservedly esteemed, and distinguished, than the President Henault. In the double capacity of a man of learning and a man of the world, he succeeded in raising and justifying a high reputation, to which his long career, added still increasing renown, and gratification. Being the son of a *fermier-général*, he was heir to a considerable fortune, but was induced, in a fit of devotion, to join the congregation of the Oratory. In this house he acquired a taste for learning, and composed several works. However, he soon left them, to enter the Parliament of Paris, and, notwithstanding his youthful period of life he was received president of one of the *Chambres des Enquêtes*. Ambition never prompted him to rise one step higher; neither would he have accepted of any promotion, had not the partiality of the Queen consort of Louis XV. induced her to appoint him superintendant of her household.

To a peculiar talent for every branch of literature President Henault joined a sweet and amiable disposition, for which he was ever welcome in company. He was long one of the most distinguished ornaments of the brilliant and numerous court which the Duchess de Maine invited to Sceaux, where literature and other amusements consoled her for the political nullity of her husband, and his disappointed ambition.

However, neither the pleasures of high life, nor the partiality of many ladies of quality, could supersede his love of literature, which he cultivated all his days. From his application to study he derived not only his chief reputation, but assuredly his most real happiness.

So early as 1707 he obtained the prize of poetry at the French Academy, of which he became a member in 1723. He wrote two tragedies that were performed at the Théâtre François; the first, entitled *Cornélie Vestale*, in 1713, to which was prefixed the name of *Fusélier*, had but little success; the second, *Marius à Cyrthe*, performed in 1715, of which Decaux was the supposed author, met with a favourable reception, as it deserved. Official decorum withheld President Henault from acknowledging these works. But his chief glory is derived from his *Abrégé chronologique de l'Histoire de France*. This useful work, which contains so much in so small a space, was published in 1744; the author's last edition was in 1760, augmented nearly two-thirds.

It is the most handy and easy for consultation, and the best digested repertory that was ever published. Not one important event of the history of France is omitted; and the date is always correct: indeed, it may be affirmed that a man well acquainted with this Abrégé would appear to know French history better than by pondering for 30 years over *Joinville*, *Philip de Comines*, *Pasquier*, Father *Daniel*, *Mézeray*, his commentators, &c. &c.

In 1770, the year in which he died, President Henault published a volume, containing several theatrical pieces. He did not intend Francis II. a tragedy in prose, for a regular drama, so much as

for an historical review of events so connected, as to produce great effect: his comedy in three acts, entitled *La Petite Maison*, describes correctly the licentious morals of the times. The other pieces are, *Le Jaloux de lui-même*; *Le Réveil d'Epiménide*; *Le Temple des Chimères*.

This volume, though entitled *Œuvres inédites*, contains some pieces that are well known; such as the tragedy of *Marius*, but, owing to corrections and alterations, it will be read with new pleasure, by those who interest themselves in the literary reputation of the author. The fugitive pieces occupy 100 pages; they shew great talent, grace, and facility, though nearly all relating to private occurrences. To these succeed letters from the Duchess de Maine to President Henault, marked with wit and elegance; then an instruction presented to Louis XV, relative to the declaration of his majority, which contains a brief review of the minority of the French kings since Charles VI. Reflections on various subjects conclude the volume: We shall quote a specimen.

"We begin with believing every thing, which is the effect of education; next we believe nothing, which is the consequence of libertinism: then we examine and enquire, which is the result of reflection; happy is he who finishes as he begun!

"It has often occurred that not finding an accused man to be as guilty as we thought him, we declare him more innocent than he really is.

"If certain individuals were to shake off what is ridiculous in them, they would have nothing left. Every man who strives to be eminent, must not overpass the circle of his natural faculties. Hippocrates is the only man among the ancients who has survived ancient physic. He is both ancient and modern."

Œuvres de Louis XIV. The works of Louis XIV., (resumed from page 718.)

We have considered Louis XIV. as a politician, we shall now describe him as a warrior. To form a just idea of his military merit we need no other evidence than that of his own military memoirs. They are unquestionably his genuine production, being entirely in his own hand writing; and, no doubt, but they contain the most that could be said in his favour.

As we find it impossible, from the nature of these memoirs, to offer any extracts, which might guide the judgment of our readers, we shall honestly and candidly submit our own opinion without a wish to detract from the merit of Louis, but, at the same time, without being dazzled by the terror or the splendour of that monarch's conquests.

Louis, in his military, as well as in every other career, derived from circumstances, he could not have foreseen, the greatest advantages towards obtaining that fame which was his idol; and which he too often undeservedly enjoyed. At the death of Cardinal Mazarin, he found himself master of the most numerous, the best disciplined, and the best appointed army in Europe; commanded by the ablest generals of the age, and the best officers in every branch. With these advantages over other powers, Louis might have been sure of victory by his generals, had he never shewn himself at the head of his troops: but, the leading feature of his character was, an eager desire for every kind of glory, and he determined to shine as a hero.

His campaign of 1667 may be considered as his *debut* in the career of arms; in setting off to join the army, he declared, that he wished to learn the art of war under Turenne.

In the campaign of 1668, also, Louis wisely, and modestly, followed the plans of Condé. He however hardly speaks of these two great generals, either in his memoirs, or in his instructions; and the little he says tends to set them in the light of ordinary officers, executing *his* orders, and following *his* glory. This want of candour, which frequently occurs in his military writings, leaves him open to the accusation of wishing to engross the merit of others; which is not the conduct of a man who feels conscious of his own.

His successes in 1672 were, also, undoubtedly, owing to the able advices of Condé and Turenne: but in this campaign he began to exhibit the true standard of his military capacity. His ordinances for infantry and cavalry, his orders for the marches of the army, and all the detail of the daily service, are written with his own hand; his letters to his generals, and to his war-minister, evince his extreme application; which shews

that he embraced with regularity, a multitude of objects, that he followed them with unwearied attention, in the minutest details, however unimportant. But these objects were mostly of too trifling a nature, much below his rank as a king, or as a general, and better suiting a lieutenant-colonel, or a major. Yet his humble abilities in the military department were eminently useful to him. As he was known to enter in the most insignificant particulars of the service, every one was kept strictly to his duty, from the dread of his scrutinizing vigilance. The greatest regularity prevailed in every branch. We cannot, however, suppose that it was a view of obtaining this result, which directed Louis in his choice of occupation.

There is every reason to believe that, in this line, he could rise no higher. His dispatches to his generals do not contain more brilliant conceptions or more enlarged views. He always keeps within the narrow limits of trifling details. After long and idle discussions, he leaves to them the choice of the plans they proposed; but, to do him justice, he omits none of the minutest circumstances which might insure their success. When Condé was sent to infuse a new spirit into the army of the Rhine, cast down by the recent loss of Turenne, and at the same time to form anew that of the Mozelle, which had been lately defeated; Louis writes to him (16th August, 1675) "*I have sent this day from Paris two thousand coats to clothe the soldiers, and as many muskets with their straps to arm them*"! His most elaborate military productions, those relating to the campaigns of 1672, 1673, 1678, and 1692, are written in the same spirit. Vainly should we look in them for a spark of that military genius, for which some of his contemporaries were so conspicuous. They contain, indeed, numerous regulations, hardly above the capacity of a young staff officer; tedious accounts of every petty affair in which he was, any way, personally concerned, on which he dwells with unusual prolixity. They are, however, remarkable by a pedantic affectation to dogmatize in common place subjects. In short, Louis's writing on military affairs, reminds us of an honest veteran half-pay captain "fighting old battles o'er again."

Yet Louis would be a warrior; and flattery at last persuaded him that he was one. In a letter to Louvois, his war minister, (27th December, 1672) he plainly tells him, "*you know, that now, I cannot command an army but by myself*; and writing to the Marshal of Luxembourg (28th July, 1691) he attempts to draw a similitude between *his* military conceptions, and those of that able general, to whom he says, in a tone of fellowship, not usual with him, *when we have been campaigning together, we always understood each other well. It appears to me that even at a distance, our ideas coincided pretty much. I am glad of it, for many reasons; and above all, for the good of the service.* Luxembourg, who, of all celebrated warriors, took least trouble in foreseeing events, must certainly have smiled at the conceit.

There is another point relating to the military, in which many contemporary writers, and those who have followed them, have censured Louis XIV. They impeach his courage, for not having swam across the Rhine with his cavalry, in 1672, and for not having attacked the Prince of Orange, near Valenciennes, in 1676. His reputation has certainly suffered from these two circumstances; yet it would be unjust to infer from them, that nature had refused him that kind of bravery which is indispensable to every man going to war. It has been said also, that he was fond of sieges, because, in those enterprizes a king exposes himself, only when he chooses; which is not the case in a pitched battle; yet, at the siege of Lisle, Louis shewed no want of cool courage, as all historians testify; and when his courtiers were pressing him to retire from a post of imminent danger, he manifested his approbation of the soldier-like advice of the old Duke of Charost, who whispered in his ear, *Sire, the cork is drawn, and you must drink the bottle.* He did not indeed wantonly expose himself; nor was it his duty to do so. As to his fondness for sieges above campaign war, we should think it arose from a consciousness of his deficiency in military capacity; the mere conduct of a siege being in general, and from his long practice, a kind of *routine* business. Besides, success was insured by Vauban's talents; while covering armies, under his best generals, secured to the vain monarch the acquisition of an easy glory.

Louis's character as an administrator of national concerns, will be best introduced to our readers' attention, by his own statement of the difficulties he had to encounter, when he assumed the reins of government. After expatiating on the various sentiments which filled his bosom from the time he first adopted this resolution, to his taking upon himself the arduous task, he proceeds to the

STATE OF FRANCE IN 1661.

At last, several years having thus elapsed, the general peace, my marriage, and the death of Cardinal Mazarin,* compelled me to delay no longer what I had, for a long time, both wished, and dreaded.

I began, then, to cast a look on the several departments of the state; not a look of indifference, but that of a sovereign, deeply affected to see that there was not one branch but what pressingly called for my remedying hand; while at the same time I carefully watched for what times and circumstances might allow me to execute.

Things were every where in confusion; my court, in general, was still very far from those sentiments in which I hope you will find it. Men of quality, accustomed to perpetual negociations with a minister who was not averse to it, and who had found it sometimes useful, constantly alleged pretended rights, or whatever suited their convenience. No governor but was ungovernable; no demand but was united with some reproach of the past, or with some insinuation of future dissatisfaction by way of threat; favours were exacted and wrested, rather than waited for; each grant laid the foundation of a future claim; indeed, no one felt obliged by favours; which answered no other purpose but to create discontent among those to whom they were refused.

Finances, which gave life and motion to the whole body of this great monarchy, were entirely exhausted, and, to such a degree, that hardly any resources could be discovered; many of the most necessary and most privileged expenditures of my household, and of my own person, were either shamefully in arrears, or were supported only by a credit, the consequences of which were burthensome. On the other hand, the establishments of the Farmers of the revenue superabounded with wealth; and while they were attempting to cover their peculations by every kind of artifice, they betrayed their guilt by the insulting display of unbounded luxury; as if apprehensive lest I should overlook it.

The church, besides its usual evils, was, at last, openly threatened with a schism, by men the more dangerous, as they could be eminently useful; men of great merit, had they been less conscious of it. The smallest fault in the order of nobility was, its being mixed with an infinite number of usurpers; without any titles, or with titles bought for money, and not acquired by services. The tyranny which that order exercised in my provinces on its vassals, and on its neighbours, could no longer be tolerated, nor could it be repressed, but by striking examples of severity.

Justice, to which the reformation of all other abuses, properly belonged, offered, from a variety of circumstances, the greatest obstacles to its own reformation. Places had been filled by chance or by money, rather than by choice, or by merit; many of the judges had but little experience, and less learning. The statutes of my predecessors respecting age and standing, were almost every where evaded .... My council, itself, instead of regulating the courts below, too often embarrassed their proceedings, by a strange multiplicity of contradictory decrees, all equally pronounced in my name, and as if by myself, which made it the more shameful. All those evils together, or, at least, their ultimate consequences, fell on the poorer class of the people, overloaded besides, with taxes, weighed down by misery, in many places, in others, wearied by their want of occupation since peace had taken place, and wanting, above all things, assistance and employment.

This report of the state of the country, is evidently by a man wishing to magnify the disease, in order to obtain a greater *eclat* by the cure. It might indeed have been a faithful one during Louis's minority, but times were greatly altered since then. Those unruly nobles had long before lost the power of being dangerous: the weakness of a regency, and the support of some of the princes of the blood, had afforded them an opportunity of being troublesome, but the reconciliation of the several branches of the royal family with their supreme head, had left them without support. Mazarin himself, so accustomed, as Louis says, to negotiate with them, had, for some time before his death, assumed another tone; he no longer stooped to deceive them by promises, but bluntly refused the price of a submission which he had then power to inforce.

Without the assistance of those men,

* The treaty of the Pyrennees had been signed on the 7th of December, 1659. The Cardinal died on the 9th of March, 1661.

who composed the court, neither the clergy nor the parliaments, could venture a shew of resistance to the authority of the monarch; to become absolute master, Louis had only in fact to rule despotically over his family, and over his courtiers, already prone to servility. In this he was eminently successful. He fomented their divisions, completed their ruin by the luxury he introduced and encouraged; disposed arbitrarily of their sons and daughters in marriage; and punished by exile and imprisonment the slightest mark of resistance, or even of hesitation. With his usual attention to details, he pryed into all their actions, even the most private, and seemingly the most indifferent to him; he finally brought them to think and feel only as he did, while the rewards he bestowed on them, stamped with the magical word *honour*, heightened their natural frivolity, and eradicated the last latent sparks of manly judgement and freedom.

As soon, however, as Louis had finally determined to take upon himself the management of his affairs, he set about it with much real attention. He professed, above all things, his utter abhorrence of a prime minister; and pretended to see, and to do, every thing himself. Yet in the various improvements he mentions as his own work with much self complacency, few, if any, actually originated with him. Many were the results of Richelieu's establishments; many had been planned by Mazarin, whose very expressions Louis often adopts. The nature of the French monarchy to which the return of peace never fails of restoring prosperity, without the interference, and often, in spite of its rulers, had done still more towards the happy change of things. Louis had besides, the assistance of the ablest ministers of the age, Lionne, Le Tellier, and Colbert, whose merits he passes unnoticed, or appropriates to himself, as he did those of his generals. Indeed, their wise measures were most frequently defeated by his own eager desire of filling the world with his name; and when, at his most sober moments, they succeeded in leading him to adopt their suggestions, his pride made him believe, and enforce the belief, that they were his own genuine ideas, and he persisted in them, with as much obstinacy, as in his own designs.

Nothing proves more that Louis's measures of administration did not originate with him, than his frequent fluctuation in the principles he followed. He inveighs against venality in the places of judicature, and in the privileges of nobility, yet he extended it in both; he at first encouraged more particularly agriculture; and was an enemy to luxury, which he afterwards promoted, with commerce, and manufactures; he professes his contempt for theological dispute, and his abhorrence of intermeddling clergymen; yet he became the tool of two intriguing monks; lastly, he professed sentiments of toleration not common in his day, but he became a persecutor; we mean, in respect to his protestant subjects.

Our readers cannot but perceive the immense proportion of vanity, which entered into the composition of Louis XIV. Could we believe the secret history of the times, and the private reports which were then in constant and rapid circulation, as to the notorious profligacy of the depositaries of ministerial power, and the question of his legitimacy, perhaps we should find motives of urgency to the display of whatever talents he possessed, and a kind of imperious necessity for his engrossing of authority, and centering it in himself, by every means. It was necessary, that he should appear as a demi-god, in order to silence defamation; and that he should take every advantage of the character of the people over whom he ruled, in order to display a lofty superiority, proof against all contravention. But, that it was the natural turn of his mind, independent of state policy, we have every reason to conclude; and cannot but resent it, by dis-esteeming the man who could plume himself on factitious abilities, and strut with preposterous self gratulation, like the poor jay, in the fable, in the borrowed feathers of superior birds.

We shall close our account of this interesting publication, by an attempt to trace the gradual change of his sentiments respecting that unfortunate and interesting class the Protestants of his kingdom; frequently called Hugonots. This, however, we must defer to a succeeding number.

Essays on the Anatomy of Expression in Painting: By Charles Bell. Royal quarto. pp. 195. Price £2. 2s. Longman and Co. London, 1806.

Anatomy stands related to the Arts of Design, as the grammar of that language in which they address us. The expressions, attitudes, and movements of the human figure, are the characters of this language, which is adapted to convey the effect of historical narration, as well as to show the working of human passion, and give the most striking and lively indications of intellectual power and energy. The art of the painter considered with a view to these interesting representations, assumes a high and dignified character. All the lesser embellishments and minuteness of representation are, by an artist who has those more enlarged views of his profession, regarded as foreign to the main subject, as distracting and hurtful to the grand effect, as admired only because they have the merit of accurate imitation, and almost appear to be what they are not. This distinction must be felt, or we shall never see the grand style in painting revived. The painter must not be satisfied merely to copy and represent what he sees; he must cultivate this talent of imitation, merely as bestowing those facilities which are to give scope to the exertions of his genius, as the instruments and means only which he is to employ for communicating his thoughts, and presenting to others the creations of his fancy. It is by his creative powers alone, that he can become truly a painter; and for these he is to trust to original genius, cultivated and enriched by a scrutinizing observation of Nature. Till he has acquired a poet's eye for nature, and can seize with intuitive quickness the appearances of passion, and all the effect produced upon the body by the operations of the mind, he has not raised himself above the mechanism of his art, nor does he rank with the poet or the historian.

Such are the sentiments expressed by Mr. Bell in his preface, and we willingly subscribe to their justice. The origin and the termination of art is mental: the interval between those points is, the mode of expressing and communicating ideas. This mode some consider as Painting; and suppose it includes the whole Art, because it exhibits the labours of manual dexterity: but, when Art limits its attempts to such contracted operations, its character is very low; or, at least, very imperfect. We must not be understood as depreciating a skilful execution, or even the cleverness of manual practice; these are absolutely indispensable: and we censure decidedly the negligence of the greatest masters in such to them, trifles, but, not trifles to the spectator. Nevertheless, we again affirm, that whoever, being capable of superior attainments, rests in these, does injury to his own reputation, and violates the dignity of his art.

The great Author of our frame has manifested wonderful though limited skill in the formation of animals and creatures of lower ranks: but he has comprised, in the person of man, as it were, an epitome of whatever excellencies he has exhibited elsewhere. Hence the study of the human figure presents beauties ever new, and ever interesting. It possesses a kind of infinitude, and those most intimately acquainted with it are most deeply convinced of its unlimited variety and beauty of appearance, motion, effect, and expression. This is true, generally, of the figure; but, especially of the countenance, which is particularly marked as the residence of expression.

It may well be supposed, that in following omniscient skill, the study must be both delightful and difficult. Every artist has felt this truth, and will readily confess his obligations to whoever assists in diminishing the difficulties attendant on this branch of his profession.

Mr. Bell has engaged in this laudable attempt, with a spirit and intelligence which do him honour. He professes not to "aim at any thing like a complete theory of expression:" but, merely "ventures to hope that some of his suggestions may prove useful to those who indulge in these pleasing speculations; or be serviceable to artists, who derive satisfaction from studying the principles of their art." After this ingenuous confession, to expose too severely the deficiencies of the work before us, would mark us as cynics, not as critics. The subject is apparently new to the writer: it certainly is new to the British public. Mr B. has succeeded in some things: he has failed in others: he has omitted others: as might be expected. Artists, who are competent, may derive information from his volume; and the very thought of directing his labours in this channel, demands the acknowledgement of those who not only delight in the effects which art produces, but wish to understand the causes and principles of what delights them.

This volume comprises six essays; the first cautions against faults to which artists may be betrayed in studying from the antique exclusively: (at which Mr. B. is, in our opinion, more frightened than hurt,) and, *e contra*, placing too much dependence on the flaccid contours, and wearied expressions of an academy living model: a failure which no master competent to the study of general nature, is likely to retain, after his ideas have become familiar with the instantaneous flashings of expression which nature presents. No eye but that of an artist can keep pace with these ever varying appearances, or trace them to their sources.

The second essay is on the skull and form of the head. This subject, from its interesting nature, may justly claim our attention.

The differences in the general form of the head between that of an infant, and that of a full grown person, are well known An infant's head is oval and elongated: the forehead flat: the nose scarcely rising: the jaw bones small, short, and shallow. As life advances, the head becomes rounder: the nose rises: the addition of teeth, produce a different form of the jaws; and when, in old age, the teeth are lost, the falling in of the parts which they formerly supported, is no slight mark of this period of life.

But, there is another pinciple which not only distinguishes man from his fellow, but man from brute; and this being less familiarly known, we are desirous of setting it before our readers in an intelligible manner, by the help of the following outlines. We shall not be understood as aiming at any thing like precision, but merely at an attempt to illustrate a general principle. In these figures we have accepted assistance from Camper.

Fig. 2.

Fig. 1.

If we assume the nostril, in a profile face, as the center for a circle which is to be struck around it, we shall find, that, in proportion as the radii from this center deviate from, or approach toward, the perpendicular line, A. B. in fig. 1. they vary the character of the countenance. The line A.B., itself, describes the facial line of the finest form of the human countenance, as it appears in the most celebrated antique statues. C. D. describes the general profile of what are considered as handsome European faces. E. F. is the facial line of a negro. G. is the facial line of an Oran-Otan; the general figure of which animal is the nearest approach to the human. We say "general figure," because, if other apes or monkeys may be found, the form of whose heads approaches somewhat nearer to that of man; yet the proportions and conformations of their members, remove them very much

further from the idea of comparison with our race. If we lower the facial line still more, as to H., towards the horizontal line I. K. we arrive successively at the form of a dog's head; a bird's beak; and at that of the long-snouted fishes, *e. gr.* the tobacco-pipe fish, or any other.

The second figure shews two human countenances distinctly, divested of the radial lines: in which this principle is conspicuous. That which approaches nearest to the perpendicular, is the European; that which projects most at the chin, is the negro.

Our readers will easily imagine the existence of a great variety of intermediate lines, as C. D: E. F., &c. and others affected by unlimited combination of parts. Hence character is so infinitely diversified, and no two persons precisely resemble each other. Yet hence the approach to resemblance in persons of the same family, whose facial lines are different yet the same. We are obliged to Professor Camper for first reducing these principles to regularity and order. He attempted, indeed, mathematical demonstration: in this he failed; for, though true in the general, his theory is subject to many exceptions. Blumenbach in his Decad. Col. Craniorum, has shewn, that we must not apply it too extensively, too implicitly, or too precisely.

Mr. Bell has taken much pains on this subject: he corrects a misapprehension of Winkelman on the depth of the eye in antique heads; observing, that this effect is by comparison only, and should rather be referred to the greater elevation of the frontal and nasal bones. Winkelman though an amateur, did not possess the advantages arising from anatomical knowledge. But this principle of distinguishing between bestial and human conformation, was not only adopted by the antient artists in the general lines of the countenance, it also regulated the features. By dismissing the facial indications of the lower propensities of our nature, they gradually refined the human physiognomy, till it presented only the marks of the superior qualities of man: these combined, give that wonderful elevation of character to the antique statues of deities, which all admire, but few comprehend. It will also be observed, that by rejecting these inferior parts, the antients at the same time acquired a breadth, an openness, an extent, presenting an unbroken but not unvaried surface, capable of intimately harmonizing with parts around, and thereby of combining the united effort of the whole, in the sublimities of art. Mr. B. observes, that the ancient artists studied bestial forms intimately.

We trace this method of study in many pieces of antiquity, where the artist has endeavoured to convey the character of dignity, or bodily strength, or courage, by transfusing into his composition some of the peculiar forms of animals, as in the personification of gods and heroes. p. 40.——Moreover,

The frequent representation of fawns, satyrs, centaurs, and masks, necessarily forced the artists of antiquity to study the peculiarities of brutes, and to engraft them on the human form. What then was more natural or obvious, while observing the effect of these forms and expressions transferred to the human countenance, than the persuasion that this character should be sedulously avoided, and the proportions which mark it reversed, in order to convey the dignified and characteristic form of man?——The ancient artists in representing the sylvan deities, centaurs, fawns, or satyrs, did not merely give them hair and cloven feet, but bestowed on them a certain combination of character, very difficult in execution, but which alone can reconcile us to the palpable absurdity; a coltish wildness in gesture; a goatish expression of countenance or festive hilarity, with features in which there is more of common nature than of dignity, and which are in some conformity with the hair and the hoof; a body and limbs, muscular and powerful; a skin browned, and of a high colour, such as the savage wildness of their life may be supposed to produce. pp. 41. 42.

Sir Joshua Reynolds has given an ingenious view of the theory of beauty, by considering beauty as the center of the various forms of individuals: these forms vibrate in all directions from this center; very few of them coincide truly with it; yet all approximate more or less, and hence beauty, (or a near approach to it) is more frequently produced, than any one kind of deformity. Mr. B. admits this principle in reference to the parts of a face, yet finds great difficulty in admitting it, as to the head at large. We rather wonder at his hesitation: since, undoubtedly, nature intends perfection in all her works; and her efforts to attain it are more frequently attended with success,

that the power of any one agent to thwart them, is, by producing any one species of deformity. That nature does not always succeed exquisitely, need not surprise any who consider, that her efforts are not always uniformly active in every part: and that circumstances are not universally and equally favourable to her intentions. Mr. B. proceeds—

In concluding my remarks on the form of the head, I may venture to affirm, that there cannot, in this part of his study, be a more important subject for the observation of the artist, than the form of the frontal bone. Much of the character of the whole head will be found to depend on the contour of the forehead, the ridges of the temples, the prominences formed by the cavities in this bone, and lastly, the arch of the orbit——For example, we often see a painting in which the whole figure and the general design of the picture, is subservient to the display of the light playing on the temple of an old man. Some painters, in these profiles of old heads, are satisfied with the effect of light merely on the furrowed brow and on the rough hair; but how much more beautiful is the picture, when the anatomy is displayed, the thinness of a care-worn face, the ridge of the frontal bone highly illuminated, the veins in their course over the temple, the delicate transparent colours of the skin, the shade of floating grey hairs! So much character will often be produced by the simplest touch presenting the true anatomy.——Instead of mechanical rules for drawing the face, I would recommend to the young painter to have the skull much in his hands, to observe the bearing of certain points, the ridge of the orbit, the prominence of the cheek bone, the angle of the jaw, as he terms it, and to draw from it in every possible variety of position; by these means he will lay a foundation for more accurate drawing and foreshortening, while he will acquire a turn for observation on the human countenance which he cannot otherwise attain. pp. 46. 48.

In the third essay, our author considers the muscles of the face in man and animals. Here we meet with many ingenious remarks, accompanied by plates, the explanations of which, form the proper study of the subject. Mr. B. has not restricted his demonstrations to the human face; but has added the head of a dog, and of a horse.

The fourth essay illustrates the motions of the muscles of the face, when excited by passion: it includes a pleasingdiscovery of certain muscles peculiar to man; and happily, they are such as mark the affectionate and complacent sensations of the human mind.

Comparing man with animals, Mr. B. observes,

But, besides the muscles analogous to those of brutes, there is an intertexture of muscles in the human countenance, which evinces a provision for expression quite independent of the original destination of those muscles that are common to him and animals. There are muscles not only peculiar to the human countenance, but which act where it is impossible to conceive any other object for their exertion than that of expressing feeling and sentiment. These muscles indicate emotions and sympathies, of which the lower animals are not susceptible, and as they are peculiar to the human face, they may be considered as the index of mental energy, in opposition to mere animal expression.

The parts of the human face most moveable and the most expressive, are the inner extremity of the eyebrow and the angle of the mouth, and these are precisely the parts of the face which in brutes have least expression; for the brutes have no eye-brows, and no power of elevating or depressing the angle of the mouth. It is in these features, therefore, that we should expect to find the muscles of expression peculiar to man.

1. The most remarkable of the muscles, peculiarly human is the *corrugator supercilii*. It arises from the frontal bone, near the union with the nasal bones, and is inserted into the skin of the eyebrow. It knits the eyebrows with a peculiar and energetic meaning, which unaccountably, but irresistibly, conveys the idea of mind and sentiment. The anterior portion of the *occipito frontalis* muscle is the antagonist of the orbicular muscle of the eyelid. It is wanting in the animals we have already examined, and in its stead, fibres more or less strong are found to be directly inserted into the eyelids.* The motion of the features, which, next to that produced by the corrugator supercilii, is the most peculiarly expressive of human sensibility and passion, is at the angle of the mouth; and, at one time I had conceived, that the muscle which is called the *superbus*, and which elevates and protrudes the under lip, was peculiar to man; but I was deceived.

The peculiarity of human expression is in the *triangularis oris*, a muscle which I have not found in any other animal; which I believe to be peculiar to the human face, and for which I have been able to assign no other use than belongs to an organ of expression. It arises from the base of the lower jaw,

* The expanded muscle of the skull in brutes is reflected off to the ear.

and passes up to be inserted with the converging fibres of almost all the muscles of the side of the face at the corner of the mouth. It produces that arching of the lip so expressive of contempt, hatred, jealousy; and in combination with the elevator of the under lip, and the orbicularis, it has a larger share than any other muscle in the infinite variety of motion in the mouth, expressive of sentiment.

When we compare the dissected muscles of the head, with those of animals, we may perceive many smaller distinctions, into a detail of which I shall not at present enter. The *Depressor Alæ Nasi*; the *Nasalis Labii Superioris*; the descending fibres of the *Occipito-Frontalis*, are not in the brute; and in general the more minute and fasciculated structure of all the muscles of the lips, in the face of man, indicates a decided superiority in the provision for the motion of the features. pp. 94—97.

By the combination of the grosser features of expression, many of the lesser traits, and much of that various play of the features most expressive of human passions, are produced in joy, hope, admiration, anxiety, fear, horror, despair; and thus, while the human countenance is capable both of the rage of the more ferocious animals, and of the timid expression of the milder, it possesses powers of expression almost to infinity, by the combined action of a few superadded peculiar muscles. p. 100.

Mr. B. in noticing the motions of the muscles, does not take them singly, or suggest any cause *why* one swells and another sinks; or *why* that muscle which in one passion is extremely prominent, is in another barely visible. Neither has he, in treating of the countenance, explained the office of the blood in passions: under what impulse, in some it fills every vein, and marks it with a turgidity, almost ready to start; all the blood in the body rushing into the head; while in others, the blood is banished. This essay wants finishing; much more might have been said, and to advantage. The following essay (the fifth properly) adverts to the external symptoms of passions; describes the relaxation of the muscles in languor, faintness, and sorrow; with their appearance in bodily pain, anguish, and death. Under this division, Mr. B. shews his acquaintance with the poets; and introduces various specimens of their descriptive powers, in reference to the deaths of their heroes, and principal personages.

We forbear this subject for another, which we shall quote, as a specimen of Mr. B's. manner of treating the expressions of the countenance. He has not succeeded equally in all.

We turn from an unpleasing subject, and it may be well to dissipate the thoughts which it excites by surveying the more ludicrous expressions of the countenance.

Laughter makes these changes on the face: the eyebrows are sometimes drawn down, but more frequently their outer half is very much arched; while, in consequence of this elevation their inner extremity is pointed downwards, and this is a turn of the eyebrow which never fails to give an archness to the expression. The mouth is open, and the teeth appear; the angles of the mouth are drawn backward and upward; the nostrils are dilated; the cheek raised, and in violent laughter, tears sometimes suffuse the eye.

The muscles in action are first the *Occipito Frontalis*, and the orbicular fibres of the eyelids.

It is the combined action of these which gives so very particular and acute an arch to the eyebrow, and a different effect to the action of the orbicular muscle of the eye from that which it produces in crying.

Next the *Levator Alæ Nasi* raises the nostril and dilates it in a very particular, and characteristic manner. Further the cheek is raised, and the lips drawn by the combined effect of all the muscles which are inserted into the lips from the surrounding points of bone; if we except the *Triangularis Oris*. The action of this last muscle converts the broad grin into the contemptuous sneer.

A smile has more variety of expression than laughter. It may convey a thousand different meanings. The placid smile of benignity; the contemptuous arching of the lower lip;* the smile of sorrow; the simper of conceit; the distorted smile of the drunken man when the eyes with difficulty perform their office; the leer, &c.

The smile is produced by a less degree of the same action as in laughing. The concentrated muscles near the angle of the mouth, dimple the cheek, and give it some degree of fulness, while a slighter elevation of the eyebrow produces a cheerfulness in the eyes.

But there is an expression still more charming; a certain mobility of the features which indicates the susceptible mind of a lovely woman, and is more enchanting than the dimpled cheek: an evanescent illumination of the countenance which words cannot convey, and in the representation of which the painter has the superiority over the poet. pp. 126, 129.

Weeping follows laughter:—but we need only transcribe the title of one of

* Virg. IX. 740. Ib. X. 742.

Mr. B's. divisions "of joy and discontent," to prove that a better order of combination might have been adopted. Jealousy, rage, revenge, terror, horror, despair, follow: but we do not think that these are drawn from nature, simply. They are partly the result of observation: but partly are intermingled with fancy. The subject of madness, which surely is rather a disease, than a passion, (Mr. B. thinks it is *fear*) has occupied our author's attention: the nature of his profession has afforded him advantages on this subject, which an artist of sensibility would be painfully affected in obtaining.

The last essay refers to the figure at large: and *here* Mr. B. describes the nervous system, by which the will is brought into action, and the vascular system, by which the blood is conducted through the body. We should have thought some of these remarks might have been properly placed among the affections manifested in the countenance.

Mr. B. says a very little on the skin: a subject which every artist knows would have justified a distinct dissertation.

The bones and muscles are also considered in this essay; and proper directions are given for the study of them. This part also derives advantage from poetical extracts, and from observations on some of the most famous antiques: it terminates, by exemplifying the characteristic attitudes of sleep and death.

This essay treats its subject generally: Mr. B does not trace the muscles of the body or limbs, in their course, or offices, neither does he select any one for examination with particular attention. Undoubtedly, any thing like justice done to this enquiry would have demanded a second volume. If Mr. B. meditates such an addition, he may have done right in submitting only a cursory view of this part of his subject. We frankly own we should be glad to see him examine it at large, combining with his skill as an anatomist his freedom of hand as an artist.

Perhaps it would be an improvement on this suggestion, if an artist by profession accompanied Mr. B's. investigations: since only such an one can *feel* the difficulties of his art, or point out the errors which students are apt to commit, the places where such errors occur, and the incidents which commonly lead to them. Such an one, too, by reversing the chirurgical order, might open principles not in Mr. B's. contemplation. He would perhaps enquire first as to the skin; its texture, variety of tint, and appearances,—in youth or age, in Europe, Africa, America, &c—in health, or sickness, as quiescent or as excited; the integuments beneath this covering might next engage his attention: some of which he sees through the skin. Then the muscles, the play of which he discerns on the surface, though not the muscles themselves; these, as to their origin, their course, their insertion, their tendons, ligaments, and the arrangement of the various vessels among them: as to their fibres also, and the directions of those fibres, too, since, in some instances, they affect the superficies: for wrinkles, and furrows in the skin, which are proper subjects for a painter's attention, always *cross* the course of the muscular fibres beneath them. He might proceed to the more deeply-seated muscles, the motions of which are only visible in certain violent actions (as the upper among the intercostals, under the arm-pit of the Fighting Gladiator) or, by their effect on the more conspicuous. He would come to the skeleton in the last place, and explain the nature of its motions, the changes of its measures, and proportions, by attitude, or by age, by weariness or by disease. Mr. Bell, inverting this order, would study first, the bones which determine the proportions, would clothe them with muscles for the purposes of motion, would coat these muscles with fat, and other integuments, to moderate and soften their exertions; over the whole, he would throw that complete covering, the skin, which, though it manifests, in some degree, what it conceals, yet has properties and appearances strictly its own; beyond which the uninstructed rarely examine. Nor let these opposite courses be condemned, as attended by no advantage. Only that man, if there be one such, who is capable of demonstrating both of them, *secundum artem*, can conceive the benefits proper to each: or how far it is adapted to make *a lasting impression on the minds of that class of students for which each is respectively intended.* It should be remembered that painting is a work of imagination, which surgery is not: and that it is conversant with external appearances, while surgical operations are

more deeply seated. It is also a result of memory, and by whatever means the memory may be most effectually assisted, that is most to the advantage of painting.

Our readers perceive, that although we consider Mr. B's. labours as entitled to respect, we do not regard them as perfect. But knowing that the arts stand in great need of assistance, in this very department wherein Mr. B. has offered it, we are desirous of encouraging the attempt; and have extended our remarks, in hope of improving succeeding labours of a similar kind, by hinting at those omissions which in our opinion, are disadvantageous to the work before us.

Before we dismiss this volume, we must praise Mr. Bell as a designer, and his engravers as workmen. Some of the plates are exquisite.—We doubt not but Mr. B derives from his proficiency in the art of drawing, great advantage in his profession: that he has found it a source of pleasing amusement, he acknowledges; and, we take advantage of the merit he has exhibited on this occasion, to recommend the acquisition of this art, as serviceable on innumerable occasions to gentlemen of the faculty.

A Charge to the Clergy at the Primary Visitation in the Month of August, 1806, of the late Right Reverend Father in God Samuel, by Divine Permission, Lord Bishop of St. Asaph. London, Hatchard, 1806. Price 2s. 6d.

THIS discourse is marked with the genuine characters of its author: it is commendable for ability, acuteness, and information; but censurable for a certain *hauteur*, which partakes of assumption. The subjects on which it treats, are important; some indeed are local, but others are general; and the Bishop's remarks on these cannot be too extensively known. This will justify our abstracting the contents, more fully than can be our general custom in regard to publications of this description. We have ever highly respected the talents and learning of Dr. Horsley: and some of us stood very fairly with him, even though he knew we some times differed from him in opinion.

His Lordship reprimands his clergy, in the beginning of his discourse, for engaging officiating curates without a license: this he *insists* on being reformed. Secondly, he exposes the error of publishing banns of marriage *according to the Rubric*, at the altar, after the Nicene creed; the marriage act directing that they should be published *after the second lesson*. But, a much more serious error has been committed on this subject.

By the 8th section of the marriage act, "no marriage can be lawfully solemnized, unless by virtue of special license from the Archbishop of Canterbury, in any other place than a church or chapel, in which banns had been usually published antecedently to the passing of that act: and all marriages solemnized after Lady-day 1754 in any other place than a church or such public chapel, unless by virtue of such license, are made null and void to all intents and purposes whatsoever: and any person who, after the said 25th day of March 1754, should solemnize matrimony in any other place than a church or such public chapel, unless under the authority of such special license, is to be deemed and adjudged to be guilty of felony, and is to be transported for fourteen years, according to the laws in force for the transportation of felons."

Now it is a notorious fact, that many churches and chapels have been erected and consecrated *since* the time when this marriage act was passed; and in such chapels there could have been no usage of publication of banns anterior to the marriage act, which was itself anterior to their existence. And yet in many of these chapels the officiating clergy have perpetually solemnized matrimony, not aware that they were doing any thing unlawful. A short time before I was removed from the see of St. David's, it came to my knowledge, that in a very considerable town in that diocese the irregularity of marrying in a chapel, in which, though indeed it was an ancient chapel, banns never in any one instance had been published, had gone to such an extent, that there was hardly a couple in the town, who, while they conceived themselves to be man and wife, were not actually living in the eye of the law in concubinage; nor a child in any family born in lawful wedlock; nor a clergyman in the place, though the clergymen in the place were highly respectable, who had not, not once or twice, but repeatedly, for many years of his life, been committing acts of felony.

However, this error is set to rights by 44th Geo. III. cap. 77, which confirmed all such marriages, as had been solemnized before March 25, 1805, *but no further:* which may be of consequence to some clergymen, &c. to know.

The Bishop very properly recommends to the clergy an acquaintance with the laws under which they officiate, adding the further information, that,

A book has been published by the University of Oxford, under the title of "The Clergyman's Assistant," very moderate in size, and cheap in price. It contains almost all the laws prescribing the clergyman's duty in the public offices of the Church, with some others in which the clergy are much interested. I would advise every clergyman to posses himself without delay of this "Clergyman's Assistant."

The Bishop proceeds to notice the increase of Methodists, a sect which he describes as *not* dissenters from the *doctrine* of the church.

It may seem strange to some that I should have said, that none of the Methodists are dissenters from the established church in *doctrine*, when at the same time I have said, that they consist of two principal branches, the one Arminian, and the other Calvinistic; since it has been the fashion of late to talk of Arminianism as the system of the Church of England, and of Calvinism as something opposite to it, to which the church is hostile. That I may not be misunderstood in what I have said, or may have occasion further to say upon this subject, I must here declare, that I use the words Arminianism and Calvinism, in that restricted sense in which they are now generally taken; to denote the doctrinal part of each system as unconnected with the principles either of Arminians or Calvinists, upon church discipline and church government. This being premised, I assert, what I often have before asserted, and by God's grace I will persist in the assertion to my dying day, that so far is it from the truth that the Church of England is decidedly Arminian, and hostile to Calvinism, that the truth is this; that upon the principal points in dispute between the Arminians and the Calvinists, upon all the points of *doctrine* characteristic of the two sects, the Church of England maintains an absolute neutrality. Her articles explicitly assert nothing but what is believed both by Arminians and by Calvinists. The Calvinists indeed hold some opinions relative to the same points, which the Church of England has not gone the length of asserting in her articles. But neither has she gone the length of explicitly contradicting those opinions. . . .

Any one may hold all the theological opinions of Calvin, hard and extravagant as some of them may seem, and yet be a sound member of the Church of England and Ireland; certainly a much sounder member than one, who, loudly declaiming against those opinions, which, if they be erroneous, are not errors that affect the essence of our common faith, runs into all the nonsense, the impiety, the abominations, of the Arian, the Unitarian, and the Pelagian Heresies, denying in effect "the Lord who bought him."

Of all things I entreat you to avoid, what is now become very common, acrimonious abuse of Calvinism and of Calvin. Remember, I beseech you, that some tenderness is due to the errors and extravagancies of a man, eminent as he was in his day for his piety, his wisdom, and his learning, and to whom the reformation in its beginning is so much indebted. At least take especial care, before you aim your shafts at Calvinism, that you know what is Calvinism, and what is not: that in that mass of doctrine, which it is of late become the fashion to abuse under the name of Calvinism, you can distinguish with certainty between that part of it, which is nothing better than Calvinism, and that which belongs to our common Christianity.

This address concludes with the following advice to the clergy.

Apply yourselves with the whole strength and power of your minds to do the works of Evangelists. Proclaim to those, who are at ennity with God, and children of his wrath, the glad tidings of Christ's pacification. Sound the alarm to awaken to a life of righteousness a world lost and dead in trespasses and sins. Lift aloft the blazing torch of revelation to scatter its rays over them that sit in darkness and the shadow of death: and guide the footsteps of the benighted wanderer into the paths of life and peace.

We presume that this advice will be found suitable, beyond the bounds of St. Asaph; and we hope it will be followed with diligence, as certainly it is entitled to serious and careful consideration.

The Beneficial Effects of the Christian Temper on Domestic Happiness. 8vo. pp. 91. Price 2s. 6d. Hatchard. London, 1807.

We commend without hesitation, the intention, the execution, and the tendency, of this pamplet: which we have perused with much satisfaction. It appears to have originated in a desire to enforce certain arguments, on which the Bishop of London in his late valuable treatise on the Beneficial Effects of Christianity, did but slightly touch. It is not, however, conducted on the Bishop's plan, which demonstrated, by admitted facts, the point intended to be proved in his work. The present author adduces the precepts, and the principles, which *should* influence Christians, and shews what they *should* effect; the Bishop shewed what they *had* effected; and, as all competent judges must admit the force of such

proofs, his lordship had an advantage, which, in our opinion, may very fairly be carried into domestic life, and its undeniable importance appreciated, in the various relations of consanguineous society.

We believe that the effects of Christianity have softened the human heart, have made better fathers and children, husbands and wives, brothers and sisters, than were so frequently met with before this divine dispensation visited our earth. But, the work which should prove this, must expose the deficiences of Pagan (and merely natural) conduct, as well as motive, and must contrast these with the powerful results *actually* produced by the unrestrained operations of gospel principles in those who have affectionately received them:—good seed falling on good ground.

This work describes the duties incumbent on parents and children, brothers and sisters, wives and husbands, the general temper of Christians in society, the importance of humility, Christian conduct under injury, and in near views of death.

We discern a masterly hand in this performance; and though it is not, (as what is?) faultless, yet we regard the author as a man of sense, and a gentleman, as an able writer, and, what is still better, as a Christian. After these commendations he shall speak for himself.

Envy, says our author, may be called a weed of the human mind, which, like other weeds, grows with far greater rapidity, than useful and wholesome plants; it is a weed too of that rancorous quality, that it poisons every thing within its reach; and, if not rooted up to the very *foundation*, it destroys, eventually, every seed of virtue, and every germ of human happiness.

On the subject of marriage, the writer makes a sort of apology for digressing: we see no necessity for this apology. His sentiments are judicious.

It rarely happens, that wisdom is taught by any means but experience; and in those unfortunate cases of inclinations, where the wishes of young persons are in direct opposition to those of their parents, it is the duty of the latter to remonstrate, with all Christian gentleness:—If that fail, it then becomes absolutely necessary to exert the authority which Providence has given, to prevent every thing that threatens to be injurious to the happiness or virtue of the child.—But there the parent's authority ceases; though he has a right to forbid one connexion, he has no right to urge another, though it is happy for both parent and child, where the wishes of each can be brought to coincide: and here the Christian precepts will have their effect, by disposing both parties to bend as much to the wishes of each other, as the happiness of the object in question will admit.

The following portrait of that most estimable of human blessings, a good wife, is worth any woman's studying. It appears to be drawn from nature, and we believe that it may be, very frequently, *verified*, by appeal to the life, among the ladies of Britain.

What then is the summary of the duties of a Christian wife?

Constant subjection to her husband, in every thing which is not inconsistent with her duty to her Maker; the highest respect for his character and conduct, to the utmost extent she can preserve it; forbearance with his faults, follies, and failings; mildness and cheerfulness in her manners and conversation; and a minute attention to every article connected with his happiness, comfort, and interests; regular precepts and example, to train his children and servants in the paths of holiness, and daily prayers to Heaven for his welfare, and grace to perform the duties of a good and Christian wife.

To husbands our author gives this advice;

Let a husband therefore who, would possess himself, and communicate to his wife, that happiness, with which Providence has blessed the married state, attend to all those rules of Christian equity, which subdue selfishness in the human breast; let him consider his wife as a part of himself; and make her comfort, interest, and character, equally dear to him with his own; let him treat her with tenderness, gentleness, and attention, administering his reproofs with candour and indulgence, and with the sole view of her happiness and improvement; always feeling and expressing the highest value for her virtues, and approbation of her good conduct.—Let him comfort her in sickness and distress, protect her from injury and calumny, and conscientiously discharge the duties he promised at the altar in the presence of the Almighty, to love, comfort, and cherish her.

We add an extract, from another part of the work, but on the same subject.

If a married couple unite themselves, from interested motives *only*; if they set out in life, with the hope of drawing all their comfort from wealth and splendour; let them extract from those sources all the good they are capable of bestowing; but let them not expect to find their happiness, where they did not intend to seek it: or, if they have

thoughtlessly united themselves with vice, they must submit to pay the price of their unprincipled folly.

Possibly so trying an event may occur, as a disappointment in our domestic happiness, even when due caution and pure motives seem to have guided us in the choice. In such a case, the sufferers must rest all their comfort on religion, and all their hopes on a future state. " * Nor let them sorrow, as those without hope;" if their duties are well performed, and their trials patiently borne, " † all things shall, for them, work together for good."

Other excellent monitions occur: but we must now execute the painful part of our office, that of pointing out defects. We never take this trouble with works which we do not esteem.

In p. 7, our author speaks of " expecting forgiveness of our own sins *in the exact proportion*, that we forgive others:"—Not this *exactitude of proportion*, may it please a gracious God! The same phrase occurs in another passage. We have marked, in our first extract, the word *foundation*:—this term refers to a building; a plant has roots, but no *foundation*. In p 45, line 12, is an unlucky misprint, " men *extract* from their wives services and benefits"—read *exact*. In p. 64, 65, we find the following sentiment——

We are told to " be perfect, even as our Father which is in Heaven, is perfect;‡" life is to be a constant labour to attain it; and if we use our unceasing and earnest endeavours, the merits and mediation of our Saviour will *atone for the rest*——

"Atone for *the rest!*"—No, Sir, you do not mean this: every thing which poor human nature can do requires atonement:

Forgive our *faults!* forgive our *virtues* too;
Those *lesser faults*, half converts to the right!

We wonder the more, by what accident this escaped our author, as the following paragraph stands in the same page;

Then, it is urged again, " we cannot attain all this; we must be short of perfection."—The knowledge of this unhappy truth, is only applied by pious Christians in one way,—to increase their humility and self-abasement; and their faith in, and gratitude for, the GREAT PROPITIATION for the sins of the world.

* 1 Thessalonians, iv. 18. † Romans viii. 28.
‡ Matt. v. 48.

We shall be happy, soon, to see these, with a few other *peccadilloes*, which the author will discover on revision, carefully corrected, in a second edition.

A Manual of Orthodox Divinity; or, Religious Principles in plain and easy Language, suitable for all Persons, and especially adapted to instruct the Young, the Poor, and Uninformed; to ground them in the Doctrines of the Christian Church, and preserve them from Errors in Religion, by the late Oliver St. John Cooper, M A. 8vo. Price 2s. Boards. Printed for the Endeavour Society. Sold by Rivingtons, &c. London, 1806.

THE object of this work is clearly expressed in the title, and after a careful perusal of it, we must acknowledge that the author has done every thing that could be expected in so small a compass. We do not find any thing objectionable in his doctrines, which are evidently and strongly corroborated by numerous references to scripture, a plan (by the bye) well calculated to lead the serious reader to a duty, alas, too much neglected by all, that of " searching the scriptures". If the texts had been given at length, the bulk of the book, and its price, would have been increased, and of course its circulation diminished. We recommend it to our readers, who would be gratified with perusing it, and might thereby be better disposed to purchase it for their children, servants, and poor neighbours. We most sincerely join in the prayer of the late worthy author. That this work may be blessed to those who use it, and that it may tend " to promote the " glory of God, and the salvation of " souls, through Jesus Christ our Lord " and only Saviour.—Amen "

For an account of the Endeavour Society, see our Proposita Philanthropica, p. 1048.

The Friend of Youth; or, Candid Advice to Parents and Guardian son the Choice of such Trades, Professions, and Employments, as may be suited to the Taste and Genius, to the Talents and Propensities, to the present Circumstances and future Hopes, of their respective Children and Wards. 12mo. pp. 326. Price 6s. Ridgway, London, 1806.

This long title sufficiently expresses the purport of the work before us. Books of this description are useful, because, it often happens that the judgment of a parent, in itself undecided, is determined by a trivial occurrence, as to what profession may best suit his child. Among the infinitely varied situations of life, circumstances not to be controuled by wishing, or even by endeavour, almost necessitate youth to the adoption of such occupations as are within their attainment. Nevertheless, at a period when enquiry is duty, a work like the present may be consulted with advantage; and choice, *if* a choice be permitted, may be made by prudence assisted by good information. There are also, at all times, a considerable number of men grown up to maturity, who have not been regularly trained to any business; others, whose businesses have failed them, or who wish to change those which they have followed; to these such works are useful; and by consulting them, they may be less at the mercy of crimps and kidnappers, with which most of the lower kinds of employments abound, at least in the metropolis, no less than in too many branches of the public service.

The author introduces his work, by advice to parents of rank and fortune, in which he discusses the relative advantages of the learned professions; and of naval and military employments. After this follows advice to parents of the middle classes, to which the author refers the Arts, Agriculture, &c. in alphabetical order. His endeavour is, to give a general idea of the capital necessary for beginners in each profession, and of the emoluments deriveable from it. He also distinguishes such as are peculiarly injurious to health, and introduces various cautions, the observance of which would prove highly beneficial.

It could not be expected that the modes of conducting businesses, or the *unpleasantnesses* inseparable from them, should have been communicated even to the most careful enquiries of a stranger to such businesses: these can be taught by nothing short of experience. It is evident, therefore, that a *general* notion is all which can be obtained from this volume; and under that view of it, it is intitled to praise.

The author considers himself as having taken advantage of a hint derived from a friend; and professes to give us the result of personal enquiries. He might have known, that many years ago, forty, perhaps, or more, a work of this nature was published, of which the editor, we believe, was Mr. Collyer. This, (or others of the same nature) has been since reprinted, from time to time, so that the present volume is not the only one from which similar information may be derived.

Account of the Introduction of the Cow-Pox into India. 8vo. pp. 111. Bombay. Printed by Moroba Damotherjee Prabhoor, 1803.

We register this little volume, with no other intention than that of recording a history of the transmission of the Cow-Pox to a country so remote as India. This fact alone, demonstrates the importance of commerce, and the powerful effects of intercourse between distant nations. Had not commerce induced Europeans to settle in India, this event could not have occurred: an enlightened nation only could manifest such zeal in promoting what was understood to be so great a public blessing, or could have produced the means of conveyance, and the persons capable and willing to take advantage of its powers.

Dr. Keir, the author of this work, asserts, that "there is no country where the small-pox proves so great a scourge as it does in India, owing to the climate, as well as to the prejudices of the inhabitants," p. 7; and the Medical Board at Bombay, write, August 4, 1801.

"The small pox from inoculation is certainly here a much more dangerous disease than in Europe; for a greater proportion die of it, and of those who escape, great numbers suffer severely from it. We think that *one third of those who get the disease naturally, are destroyed by it*; at times, indeed, it appears under a much milder form, but occasionally, the mortality from it is *still more deplorable*."

Circumstances so distressing most surely justify the anxiety of these gentlemen to obtain whatever preventive they had reason to hope was salutary. Many attempts were made to send the virus to India, by sea; but from the length of the voyage, they failed. After various miscarriages, the matter was received at

Constantinople, from Dr. De Caro at Vienna, and the disease was established at Constantinople; Lord Elgin, the British Ambassador there, inoculating his child on September 6, who was born August 31.

From Constantinople the vaccine matter was carefully conveyed, by land, of course, to Bagdad; a journey of from 25 to 30 days.

From Bagdad to Bussorah the distance is much shorter, so that Mr Milne the surgeon at Bussorah received it in a few days.

The next difficult step, perhaps the most difficult of the whole, was to produce it in Bombay, after a sea voyage, and after it had been kept for weeks before we could use it. This will account for the many failures experienced before success was obtained.

The Recovery left Bussorah late in May, and as the season was favourable for making a quick passage, reached Bombay in three weeks, bringing supplies of virus, carefully put up in different ways. Between 20 and 30 subjects were immediately inoculated, among which only *one* instance of success occurred. Anna Dusthall, the child of a female servant belonging to Capt. Hardie, was inoculated by Dr. Scott, June 14. She was about three years of age, healthy, and certainly never had had the small-pox. She was remarkably good tempered, and to her quietness and patience in suffering the operation, its success is in some measure to be attributed.——The disease succeeded:——there was only one pustule on the inoculated spot, nor did the child suffer any material inconvenience during the whole progress of the complaint.

From Anna Dusthall, on the 8th day of her disease, seven children were inoculated; and thus, this discovery has been established in India.

The island of Bombay, does not contain less than 150,000 people, so that the disease may certainly be kept up. The Hindoos and Parsees, both here, and at Surat, shew the utmost desire of having their children inoculated.

The Medical Board, impressed with a just sense of the important acquisition they had made, and anxious to diffuse it throughout India, directed the virus to be forwarded to Bengal, Fort St. George, Ceylon, and to all the other principal stations, every week; till they had the satisfaction of learning, that the disease was produced at Hyderabad, Masulipatam, at different stations on the island of Ceylon, and elsewhere.

We have no occasion to quote any part of the descriptions of this disease, which compose a considerable portion of the volume before us: but it appears, from p. 41, that several instances occurred in Ceylon, of secondary pustules on parts of the body distant from the seat of inoculation. In one instance, *three* pustules ran their course regularly.

From Madras, the cow-pox was communicated to Port Jackson: three children being inoculated during the voyage.

The cows of India have not this disease, p. 71.

If the cow-pox should succeed in exterminating the small pox from India, this history of the conveyance of the means by which it was effected, will be read with peculiar interest; or if, on any future occasion, a similar communication should be desirable, the measures taken in this instance may be recurred to with advantage.

Dr. Meek, at Cochin, had inoculated 1,044 subjects February 1, 1803, and had put 25 of them to the test of variolus contagion, without producing the small pox.

No less than 145,840 persons were vaccinated in India, between Sept. 1, 1802, and April 30, 1804. The Rajah of Tanjore is a zealous supporter of it; and the Divan of Travancore has submitted to this process. Among those vaccinated were

Brahmins - -	4,141
Malabars - - -	41,806
Mahometans - -	10,926

An Historical Account of Corsham House, in Wiltshire; the Seat of P. C. Methuen, Esq. with a Catalogue of his Collection of Pictures, &c. by John Britton. Crown 8vo. pp. 108. Price 5s. For the Author. London, 1806.

A pleasing and useful little volume, which certainly shall be a pocket companion in our next excursion into Wiltshire: when we shall also endeavour to take advantage of Mr. Britton's information, and contrive to visit Corsham, either on a Tuesday or a Friday, those being open days for viewing the pictures, which form a principal attraction of this mansion.

Mr. B. has added an interest to his work, by dedicating it to the patrons of

the British Institution for promoting the arts, the purposes of which he states with great satisfaction, and takes advantage, from the nature of the institution itself, to predict flourishing times for graphic merit. The prices of the pictures sold in this gallery during its first exhibition, which closed June 10, 1806, amounted to £5,450.

A sketch of the distinctions between the *schools* of painting, also, an historical glimpse at the estimation in which the fine arts have been held, precede the catalogue of pictures, to which is appended notes, and which is followed by some accounts of the masters whose works the reader is supposed to have been visiting, among whom are several names not in common dictionaries. A history of this seat, concludes the work.

Such assistance is very useful to whoever intends to *enjoy* the inspection of a Cabinet of Pictures, or other performances of art: and the perusal of a work of this kind, not only prepares and enables the mind to dwell with most satisfaction on the principal articles, but supersedes a number of questions, which, sometimes, while they interrupt the contemplations of a connoisseur, vex him, by the little honour they do to the inquirer. A variety of information comprised in a small compass, renders this compilation useful in several other respects, even to those who have no such visit in prospect.

Dismissing this volume with the general praise it deserves; we take the opportunity it offers, to recommend in works relating to the arts, a more than customary attention to correctness in the names of persons, places, and things: and, we choose to select our instances in explanation of this principle, from the work of a gentleman well known for his indefatigable researches and general information, rather than from performances of dubious merit, in order that our intention may not be subject to misconstruction. Such *slips*, when detected, are no greater *drawbacks* from Mr. B.'s merit, or from the reader's entertainment, than they are from the gratification of inspecting these unquestionable *chefs-d'œvre* of art.

First, we observe, that abbreviations of every kind are inconvenient; they are imposed by necessity, and not to be adopted by choice: we would not, therefore put *pan.* for *pannel*: *can.* for *canvas*: or *cop.* for *copper*. It is a blemish: and that abbreviations, of names especially, may be deceptive, is evident, by the instance of FRAN. [Fran Mola.] which may be either *Francis*, *Francisco*, or *François*; yet, the first, if written at length, would mark the artist as an Englishman, the second, as an Italian, and the third, as a Frenchman. It would be better to risk the *seeming* affectation of putting the Christian name at length.—A directly contrary error, though of the same nature, is committed in "No. 8. Portrait of TOMASO MAS ANIELLO," the Neapolitan. Here the Christian name is twice inserted; *Mas* being the Italian mode of abbreviating TOMASO: whereas, we say in English, *Tom.*—AV. OSTADE. p. 51, should be either, *Ad.* for *Adrian*, or A. v. for *Adrian van* Ostade.—*Giacoma Bassan*, p. 53, has, as we conceive, two errors: we should read Giacomo; and *Bassano*: as no native of Italy, to which country this artist appertained, would omit the o; and it is desirable, that each country should be supposed to retain its own mode of expressing its own names. For the same reason we remark *Eustachius* Le Sueur: a Frenchman would write it *Eustache*: also, *Bartholomew Stephen* Murillo: this is English, not Spanish. "Peter van *Lear*, born at *Laeren*," should certainly have been written *Laer*, correspondingly to the place of his birth. *Calvert* is also printed *Calvart*. *John* Lanfranc[o] p. 81, should be *Giovanni*. "Carlo Maratti called *Cavalière*," is also improper: *Cavalière* imports the honour of knighthood, conferred on this eminent painter.—The same remark applies to "*Titiano Vecelli Cavalière*," p. 97. Finally, we must protest against introducing knighthood among saints, contrary to authority. "No. 98, SIR Charles Borromeus visiting the sick:" and the same in "No. 167, *Sir* Francis Xavire (Xaverius) dying on the coast of China."

A complete Verbal Index to the Plays of Shakspeare; adapted to all the Editions, comprehending every Substantive, Adjective, Verb, Participle, and Adverb, used by Shakspeare; with a distinct Reference to every individual Passage in which each Word occurs. By Francis Twiss, Esq. 2 vols. 8vo. pp. 1190. Price £3 3s. Egerton, London, 1805.

WE always supposed that Reviewers had no equals, for patience; and that in

the walks of literature, they stood foremost in the persevering line, and in the exercise of indefatigability. We acknowledge, however, a formidable rival in Mr. Twiss, who, by incessant attention to substantive, adjective, verb, participle, and adverb, has almost shuffled us out of our precedence. We confess freely, that when we find works of which duty alone urges us to the perusal, we do not scruple to pay much less ceremony to both nouns and pronouns, than Mr. Twiss has paid to mere participles. But, then, the writers whom we thus treat with accelerated motion, are not Shakspeares, nor of the Shaksperean family; and we consider it as a great abatement of the applause due to Mr. T's. exertions, that he could find, wherever he went, some agreeable idea, or poetic beauty, to support his spirits; while we, alas! have drudged through many a volume without finding any such thing: without any mitigation of our labour, and with hopes truly forlorn, till we joyfully beheld the best word in the book—FINIS. We submit therefore, that if Mr. T. should be thought to excell in patience, yet that we exceed in long-suffering.

These volumes contain several hundred thousand references; and the author boldly "puts in his claim to general correctness, though he has not the presumption to imagine that such a work will be found entirely free from errors."

Mr. T. has collated in addition, the play of Pericles, that having been admitted by Mr. Malone into his edition of 1790, and, on the suggestion of Dr. Farmer, reprinted by Mr. Steevens

It appears, that after Mr. T. had made a progress in his work, which included all the then published editions, a new edition of Shakspeare in fifteen volumes, appeared; and this he has also comprised in his references, "wishing to profit by the last labours of so acute a critic as Mr. Steevens."

We are almost tempted to accommodate to our author, the words of the satirist on another subject,

Rem duplica. '*Feci.*—*Jam triplex; jam mihi*
'*quarto,*
'*Jam decies redit in rugam. Depunge uli sistam,*
'*Inventor, Chrysippe, tui, et finitor acervi!*'

A Letter to Samuel Whitbread, Esq. M. P. containing Observations on the Distresses peculiar to the Poor of Spitalfields, arising from their local Situation; by William Hale. 8vo. pp. 35. price 1s. Williams and Co. London, 1806.

MR. Hale has been very active as an inspector of the poor of the parishes of Spitalfields, St. Mathew Bethnal Green, and Mile End New Town, which are considered as forming one district. He has witnessed the most pungent distress, and in the present pamphlet he states a case of extreme misery. It appears that this quarter was principally built for, and peopled by, the French refugees, who left their country in consequence of the revocation of the Edict of Nantes, and the persecutions attending that iniquitous measure. Of these, some were rich; but the main body was poor, and the rich have gradually withdrawn to what they think more *respectable* situations, leaving the poor to burden each other,

This mass of poverty, accumulated no doubt by the increase of families, and affected by every disadvantageous fluctuation in the market price of provisions, feels its own misery, but knows not how to relieve it. From the hand of those already poor is wrung the parish rate which is to support those who receive parish assistance; and this has been so severe a trial to humanity, that "the collector of the poor rates, appalled at their miserable situation, and well knowing the total impossibility of wringing the money from them, gave up his books, though at the expense of losing a salary of about eighty pounds a year"

It appears, that this parish has had three or four acts of parliament for its direction: and beside what assistance it received from the Patriotic Society at Lloyds' a few years ago, it had also £20,000 from his Majesty at the request of the House of Commons. Yet still it is greatly in debt, and barely able to pay the annuitants whose money it has borrowed.

The distress of this case needs no farther proof, and it strongly excites our compassion; but, whoever might wish to devise a remedy, would desire better insight into the causes of this *peculiar* state of suffering. We should wish to know the population of this district, the em-

ployments of its inhabitants, the occupations of the youth, the period when it was free from these evils, on what occasion they commenced, and by what gradations they have reached their actual severity. Mr. H. says these people labour for non-resident merchants, &c.; but, if these merchants reward them for their labour, this reward should be their maintenance. They may miss the *donations* of their employers, but not their payments. If it appears that the manufactory is over-stocked with hands, why not add some other branch of business? Either employment is diminished, and therefore does not support the number it did some years ago; or the number is increased and the same quantity of employment is incapable of supplying the present population with necessaries. The evil certainly lies deeper than even acts of parliament can reach; nor, till the cause be justly understood, can any regulations effect a cure. Appeals to compassion can succeed only for a moment; appeals to policy are more likely to prove permanently advantageous; ——but policy to be serviceable should be *enlightened*.

Mr. H. states some anecdotes truly honourable to Mr. Colquhoun, Mr. Rose, and Mr. Pitt, but, especially to Mr. H. Thornton; we believe, with perfect readiness, what he says of the liberality of this gentleman; as we have cause to know that it seeks opportunities of doing good. Such instances should be mentioned; that public, though silent, respect may attend them: and that such examples may act either as excitements, or as encouragements, to others.

The experienced Millwright: or, a Treatise on the Construction of some of the most useful Machines, with the latest Improvements, to which is prefixed a short Account of the general Principles of Mechanics, and of the mechanical Powers. Illustrated with 44 Engravings. By Andrew Gray, Millwright. Square folio. Price £2. 2s. Constable and Co. Edinburgh. Taylor, London, 1805.

This is the second edition of a valuable work. We shall not enter at large into its merits, which we estimate highly, but shall refer those of our readers to whom such treatises are peculiarly useful, to the work itself, which contains the following subjects.

An essay on principles and definitions in mechanics, and on mechanical powers: which is, of course, conformable to the received elements of this science.

We have next the author's thoughts on friction, powers, motion, &c. with practical directions for the construction of machinery. Our author being a practical man, we regard this chapter as entitled to considerable attention; also the following, on the strength of the different parts of machinery, of proportioning power to the effect required, and of the method of calculating the velocity of machines.

We are next, somewhat suddenly, introduced to the consideration of water mills; which, if we could have had an opportunity of advising the author, in the first arrangement of his work, should have been preceded by a few examples of simpler combinations of wheels, with distinct explanations of the mode of action of different parts on each other, before he had introduced more complex machinery. Supposing, however, that the *experienced* millwright understands these things (though as he professes to pay some attention "to the general reader," our author should have consulted his *progress* in knowledge) we are next led to the construction of threshing machines, moved by water, wind, or horses; or one or other of these powers, occasionally. Then follow a snuff mill, corn mill, malt mill, flour mill, sheeling mill, flax mill, bleaching machines, beetling machines, oil mill, paper mill, and lastly a fulling mill, with figures of the various kinds of pumps for raising water. The explanations of the plates are useful, and some are clear, and explicit; but we think, the author has hardly condescended enough to his reader in several instances.

Mechanics are, no doubt, a mental and mathematical study, yet we believe, that few of the most popular and useful machines have derived their origin from pure contemplation. Accident and observation gave the first hint of them, experiment and reflection improved what observation suggested, and repeated trials, errors, deliberations, and corrections, often continued throughout the lives of individuals, and perhaps of successive generations, contributed to establish those improvements which, at length, have attained the highest importance.

To be a good mechanic requires the labour of a whole life; a power of directing the attention and researches of the mind to a single subject, or to the devising of a single part of a subject, when need requires it: yet capable of comprehending the conveyance of the principle of action throughout a varied series of movements, to the very result intended. Add to this, much practical knowledge, a familiarity with the powers of nature, and what they can be made to effect; an acquaintance with the best specimens of art, and the principles on which they are constructed. The knowledge of what the ingenuity of others has accomplished, is often of great advantage to a mechanic, as it keeps him from attempting impossibilities, yet encourages him, under circumstances of difficulty and embarassment.

We promote with pleasure publications like the present; and as there are many kinds of machines at which our author has not even hinted, we would encourage him to communicate these also to the public. He will, however, attend, by our advice, to an orderly, and luminous arrangement of them; and he should not think it beneath him, to pay proper attention to the effect of his plates, both in whole and in part. Let him remember, that what the eye comprehends with least difficulty, the mind also understands with least fallacy. A wheel is round, not flat, it therefore should appear round in a design, though a merely practical operator disregards this nicety. Iron should be carefully distinguished from wood. By the representations on some of these plates, it might be thought that water was a *solid* body. These are certainly blemishes in a work of merit: we remark them, not merely with a view to Mr Gray's future attention; but, by way of instruction to whoever may follow in his track That which is worth doing, is is worth doing *well*: and we are certain that whoever attempts to render a difficult subject comprehensible by general readers, will act wisely in profiting by every advantage within his power.

The public are under considerable obligations to artists who are masters of useful professions, for every communication, whereby the principles of their art are opened to practitioners in distant residences: and in this commendation Mr. G. is well intitled to partake.

Viaggio di Licomede (Arrighi) in Corsica, e sua relatione storico-filosophica sui costumi antichi e attuali de' Corsi: ad un suo Amico. Travels of Licomedes (Arrighi) in Corsica, and his historical and philosophical account of the ancient and present manners of the Corsicans: to one of his friends. 8vo. price 9s. Lerouge. Paris.

This is one of those affected publications which have endeavoured to *distinguish* themselves at the French press; as appears by the author's assuming a Greek name, and giving Greek names to his friends with whom he corresponds.

From the circumstance of Bonaparte being a native of Corsica, that island has of late received a kind of comparative importance, and its history has assumed an interest, to which the subject of it is, assuredly, not entitled, by its magnitude, its population, or its productions. The ancients were little acquainted with the early state of its first inhabitants: after its conquest by the Romans, we have somewhat more information of the manners of the people: but the picture drawn of them is little to their advantage. The opinions of Strabo and of Diodorus Siculus are contradictory. The present writer, as Boswell before him had done, follows Strabo. The municipal government was established in this island, about the beginning of the eleventh century, and the writers of those times describe it, as having been highly advantageous to the people. That *vindictive character* which is imputed to the Corsicans, our author attributes to the oppressive tyranny of the Genoese. He is, however, unable to vindicate them from this charge; but observes, that their personal enmities ceased when the defence of their country and its liberties were in question. He also praises in strong terms their hospitality. The state of civil war to which they have been so long accustomed, has rendered them passionately fond of the chace: but has almost excluded them from acquaintance with the labours of agriculture, with commerce, or the arts of life. The population of this island, which he seems to have derived from authentic information, our author states at 166,000 souls: whereas, Corsica, from its extent, might be thought capable of sustaining at least a million.

Lettres sur l'Education des Vers-à-Soie, &c. Letters on the rearing of Silk-Worms, and the cultivation of the white Mulberry Tree; in which the author, founding his Opinion on the Experiments of the most successful Breeders, and on a Method practised by himself, demonstrates that both the Insect, and the Tree, may succeed and prosper in Latitudes much further North, than those comprised in the French Empire, and may be a source of Pleasure, and Wealth to Families. By A. R. Angéleny, Professor of Mathematics at Besançon. 12mo. price 2s. 6d. Marchand. Paris.

ALTHOUGH we are not without information on the subject of this useful insect, and on the mulberry tree, yet this work contains absolutely new views, as to the possibility of the multiplication of these valuable worms, or rather caterpillars, and of the plants on which they subsist. This information regards principally those climates which hitherto have been considered as too far north, too chilly, for this undertaking.

As Bonaparte has lately prohibited the exportation of silk from Piedmont, and other districts under his dominion, we register this little work with some degree of satisfactory opposition to him. We merely remark further, that there are several kinds of silk worms; and that they differ, as in other qualities, so in hardiness, and capability of resisting the effects of temperature. Moisture is injurious to them: wet food is fatal: but the art of hatching them, sooner or later, according to the season, is, of the greatest consequence, in this uncertain climate. As a very few weeks' attendance produces this valuable commodity, and silk never need fear any hazard of not finding a market, we think it pity, but that it should be naturalized among us. The finest and softest piece of silk we ever felt, was made from webs produced in this country. We recommend the prosecution of the experiments connected with this article to the female sex: because we recollect that the Grecian women, (many of whom make a profit of £80 or £100 a year, by their silk) are unanimous in their opinion, that should any *man* enter the rooms where the worms are kept, the whole brood would die. They also choose to take the money it produces, *themselves*; but their reasons for this, as they do not divulge them, we cannot presume to penetrate.

De l'Influence des Beaux Arts, &c. On the Influence of the Fine Arts on public Felicity. Pamphlet. 8vo. Ratisbon. Montag.

THIS work is divided into seven dialogues, and consequently, has a dramatic form. The speakers are Anaxagoras, Pericles, Phidias, Alcibiades, and Aspasia. These determine that the fine arts have very important influence on the happiness of nations, and communities, when they are employed in constructing monuments of public gratitude; in painting memorable events; in raising statues to illustrious characters; in setting heroic examples before the eyes of spectators; and in celebrating efforts of virtue, by songs of praise. They become, on the contrary, instruments of corruption, when employed to nourish the luxury and effeminacy of individuals. This is especially insisted on by Pericles, now near his end, in the last dialogue, wherein he explains to Aspasia his apprehensions, that the influence of Alcibiades will be prejudicial to the prosperity of Athens. This the more impresses the mind of the expiring statesman, because Alcibiades, in the preceding dialogue had not concealed from Pericles his inclination for magnificence, pomp, and enterprizing ambition.

These dialogues are distinguished by a profound knowledge of the theory of the fine arts, and a noble enthusiasm for the public welfare. Their author is M. de Dalberg, Arch-Chancellor of Germany.

Eloges Historiques, &c. Historical Commemorations composed for the Medical Society of Paris, accompanied by a discourse on the connection of Medicine with the sciences of natural knowledge, and of morals. By J. L. Alibert, MD, member of several societies. 8vo. price 5s. Crapart. Paris.

THIS volume contains memoirs of Lazarus Spallanzani, Galvani, and Roussel; with a discourse on physic.

The writer has carefully stated the progressive discoveries of the subjects of his

commendations, and has sacrificed to fidelity whatever of oratory or elegant composition he might have introduced: He has not, therefore, degraded into the notes the main facts which are the most worthy of attention, but has considered them as forming the principal object, when the merit of the person of whom he is giving an account is under discussion. The lives of Spallanzani, and of Galvani, cannot fail of being interesting: but the progressive view taken of the discoveries which they were so fortunate as to make, renders such interest doubly pleasing.

Voyages Agronomiques, &c. Farmer's Travels in the district of Dijon, containing an explanation of the method successfully employed for more than a century, to correct the abuses arising from the excessive subdivision of land, by the manner of laying down roads for agricultural purposes, &c. Price 5s. Mad. Huzard, Paris.

This work is interesting to the country to which it refers: but not much of it is applicable to Britain. We should not have noticed it, but for a remark it has drawn from the Editor of a French journal, when reporting it.

While we applaud, says he, the enlighted views of the author of these travels on the advantages of uniting lands into extensive premises, we ought to guard against falling into the opposite extreme.

Andalusia, so celebrated in antiquity, under the name of *Bætica*, on account of its extreme fertility, is for the most part, at present, actually struck with barrenness, occasioned by the excessive extent of its farms. The great proprietors of these farms keep registers, in which undue importance is given to the most productive pieces of land, while they proscribe from cultivation, not only those which their owners judge would yield unprofitable crops, but also those which are in disrepute for being of a secondary fertility, however capable they might be of contributing to the general increase, under proper management. From this abuse, says the writer, *hardly the third part of Andalusia is in full cultivation:* so famous as this province was formerly for its abundance!——*Verbum sat, &c.*

De la Semiologie buccale, &c. Exposition of the Symtoms which may be discovered in the Mouth, from which Prognostics may be drawn as to the Cachexy, the numerous disorders produced, or augmented, by it, and others with which it may be complicated: as well those affecting the Teeth, as those affecting other Parts of the Body. By L. Laforgue, Dentist. Pamphlet. Price 2s 6d.

What this writer calls *Semiology*, is the art of detecting cachexy, the diseases dependent on it, and the decisive symptoms which determine the presence of this malady, though hitherto not regarded. Cachexy is taken for that state of the blood, in which the proportion of serum in the blood is superabundant; and this disposition, together, with the prevalence of other watery humors, indicates the approach of the disease, or its near incipience, even before it can properly be said to be present.

This hint may be of use to practitioners. The state of the mouth, and the juices, exhibited by the saliva, may occasionally afford a glimmering light on the nature of a complaint, when other resources have failed. Or, when suspicion arises of some concealed disease, which suspicion has so little apparently to justify it, that it is not thought worthy of being mentioned, a more accurate examination than usual of the teeth, gums, palate, salival glands, &c. may produce useful discoveries.

Elizabeth, ou *les Exilés de Sibérie*, a novel. By Mad. Cottin. 2 vol. 12mo. Giguet et Michaud. Paris.

This tale is founded on a real occurrence which happened in Russia, some time ago. Deep in the deserts of Siberia, where her father and mother reside as exiles, a young lass of sixteen, meditates the bold attempt of penetrating to Petersburgh, a distance of 800 leagues, to solicit from the Emperor the restoration of her parents. This undertaking she executes, with invincible courage, and overcomes an infinity of obstacles. The circumstance of the coronation of the Emperor Alexander, at Moscow, somewhat shortens her journey. She visits this city, obtains an audience of the Emperor, and succeeds in her object: the

well-earned reward of her courage, constancy, and fatigues.

Mde. Cottin has embellished this anecdote with the charms of style and the beauties of sentiment: forming a striking picture of innocence, frankness, and heroism, combined in a young person, who is, of course, uncommonly beautiful. The temptation to enlarge in descriptions of dreary forests, desolate wastes, interminable wildernesses, and other wonders of nature, has been too strong for the writer to resist. Criticism might perhaps, discover that these incidents sometimes delay the progress of the narrative: but those who have no objection to making works of this kind the channels of information will consider this as a trivial blemish.

Le Courier Russe. The Russian Courier, &c. By Mad. ***. 2 vols. 12mo. price 4s. 6d. Demonville. Paris.

The attempt, and the success, of Mad. Cottin to form an interesting novel, on the subject of an extraordinary Russian incident, has probably had its influence in inducing this lady to combine an ideal course of events which are *unlikely* to have happened any where, and *impossible* to have happened in Russia. In the progress of the novel the Emperor of Russia banishes the separated husband of the heroine, into Siberia: where, while in sickness, *abandoned by all nature*, he is suddenly succoured under his distresses, by a youth, named Subow, who describes himself as *a courier of the Spanish Ambassador*, who also brings orders for his release: this disguised courier is the forsaken wife of the culprit. ——This is saying enough, by way of caution, to all who may incline to write Russian novels, with Siberian incidents. At any rate, let not probability be shocked, by the absurdity of Spanish couriers, under Russian names, and females performing offices from which the most robust of men shrink,—riding post "*au fond de la Sibérie.*" [For a more correct description of Siberia, see the Life of Prince Menzikoff, Panorama, p. 336.]

Pasilogie, or Music considered as an Universal Language. By M. Devisme. Pamphlet. Price 2s. 6d. Paris.

This work, accompanied with music-plates, presents the system of the author, either felt, fancied, found, or filched. A specimen may serve. "God speaks," says he, "and in what language does he speak? In the heavenly language.—And what is the language of heaven? It is music.—Therefore, God speaks in music.—Man is made in the image of God. Moreover, the angels taught man to speak, that is, to sing.—In this language of the infant world, there was neither nasals, nor dentals, nor gutturals: there were not even words. *This angelical language flowing from heaven, was nothing more than a continuation of purely melodious sounds:* in a word, a vocal music." The author after having indulged himself in dissertations on *gamuts* and *alphabets*, pronounces positively that *music is the only language spoken by angels*; and that, our souls, when delivered from their tabernacles of clay, *will rise diatonically from octave to octave*, till they have attained the mansions of the blessed.

Moliere's Maître de Musique was modest compared with M. Devisme, for he restricted the efficacy of his art to *this world*; not attempting to pry into futurity—*Sans la musique, un Etat ne peut subsister!* but, perhaps, since their public permission for a celestial world to exist, the *free* people of France are determined to scrape acquaintance with its manners; and why not, also, favour the inhabitants with some valuable improvements, *à la Françoise*———when they arrive there?

Anatomie du Gladiateur combattant, &c. Anatomy of the Fighting Gladiator, &c. By Gilbert Sauvage, MD. Paris. Published in numbers, price about 7s. 6d. each.

This work is unique in its kind: and consists of anatomical examinations and denudations of capital instances of art; and of whatever may assist the studies of youth, in this part of the Arts of design. It is recommended as an elementary work by the National Institut of France, in the class of fine arts. Each number contains four plates with their explanations. Whether such an assistance to the students of the fine arts in this country might be acceptable, we recommend to the notice of those who are interested in their culture.

A Selection of Portraits of Celebrated Running-Horses, illustrated with their Pedigrees and Performances, from Pictures painted by permission expressly for this work. By J. Whessell. Extra folio. In colours £1. 16s. plain 18s.

THIS number (the first) contains portraits of *Eleanor*, the property Sir Charles Bunbury; and *Penelope*, the property of his Grace the Duke of Grafton.

The nature of this work is sufficiently expressed in its title: it will no doubt, be thought deserving of encouragement, by gentlemen of the turf, and by those who pique themselves on their knowledge in horses. Considering that this artist is, as we presume, of no very long standing in this department of the profession, we think his labours are entitled to considerable applause. The first plate is by no means ill composed, and it comprizes whatever properly belongs to the subject. The second plate has merit: but the eye of this mare appears to us to mark an expression not warranted by her state of tranquillity. It is possible, indeed, that she might thus cast her eye toward the artist; but that was an incident which he ought not to have inserted The landscape of these plates is touched with freedom; and the use of the *tool* in the skies, is judicious.

The Genuine Works of William Hogarth, illustrated with Biographical Anecdotes, a Chronological Catalogue, and Commentary. By John Nichols, F.S.A. *Edinb.* and *Perth*: and the late Geo. Steevens, Esq. F.R.S. and F.S.A. 4to. Longman and Co. London. 1806. No. I. containing eight plates, 10s. 6d.

THIS is the first number of a work intended to comprise *reduced* engravings from the prints of Hogarth. The extent of the whole is calculated at sixteen numbers, amounting to eight guineas. From this *suite* is excluded those subjects lately published after this master, and consequently, under the protection of the act for preserving copy-right in prints.

The works of Hogarth were originally published in prints of a proper size for decorating apartments: and they were the first of that description which appeared in Britain. If the artist had printed explanations for the purpose of being pasted on the back of the prints when framed, he would have prevented a multiplicity of guesses, as to the *immediate* subjects of some; and more than one frivolous undertaking which has professed to derive interest from the illustration of his designs. The immortal Dr. Trusler, was, we believe, the first who attempted this: and that his prints might be perfect *fac similia* of the originals, they were committed to the execution of an artist who *faithfully reduced them by the aid of proportional compasses*!—and *these* were to copy correctly the spirited touches of the eccentric, the *uncopyable* Hogarth!

Hogarth's composition was, constantly so crouded with thought, that he found great difficulty in maintaining those masses of tender shade, which were necessary to support his lights, to maintain the *keeping* of his ordonnance, and to preserve any tolerable approach toward *repose*.

This difficulty he did but barely overcome when he himself carefully conducted his engravings: but in the present case, this difficulty has overcome the engraver, who possessing no feeling, paternal or technical, as to the necessity of this part of the art of composition, has suffered his lights to glare and glitter indiscriminately in every part of his subject; broadly displaying the defects of his author, though unable to display his beauties. That *character* which we admire in Hogarth, is here the shadow of a shade; and if any thing worthy of being called expression *does* exist, we have not been so happy as to discover it. Indeed, whatever of illustration Hogarth imparted *by writing*, is excluded from these plates. In the subject of the Enraged Musician, we no longer find our old friend "John Long Pewterer;" nor in that of the Rake's Levee, the description of the Bully; nor the satire conveyed in the list of presents, which hangs down from the musician's chair. We do not even learn in the first plate of Marriage Alamode, that the writings concern "Lord Viscount Squanderfield;" the whole mass of wit, too, in the portrait-picture of Jupiter is utterly obliterated and unintelligible. In short, those who have never seen Hogarth in his works, elsewhere, will not see him here; and those who have *enjoyed* his good impressions, at large, will behold him in the present, sadly *reduced* indeed! We give it as our opinion, that in a Court of professional Judicature, an action of *graphical defamation* might easily be maintained, against the *doer* of the job before us.

SOME ACCOUNT OF THE PERSONS INCLUDED IN THE PROPHECY* OF M. DE CAZOTTE.

[Continued from page 759.]

J. A. ROUCHER,

Was author of several fugitive pieces of poetry, but particularly *Les Mois*. He was born at Montpelier, where he resided for some time, till his poetic genius and the *auri sacra fames* spurred him on to aspire to shine among the literati of Paris, where he at first lived in great obscurity; but gaining the acquaintance of some of the philosophic sect, who imagined he would be serviceable in spreading their doctrines, they vehemently extolled him on every occasion, and introduced him into all the fashionable circles, where by means of his poem of *Les Mois*, which he often read to them in manuscript, long before it made its appearance in print, (a long standing and prevalent custom among the authors of France) he gained a reputation which it appears the critics denied him when it was published. However he was as staunch an anti-religionist as Condorcet or any of them, and looked upon the Philosophical Dictionary of Voltaire, and the other writings of his friends, as the precursors of that new system which was to destroy the *monster*† Christianity, and *exalt* poor frail humanity to the *ne plus ultra* of perfection—and he fondly hailed the revolution, which has nearly unhinged the world, as the beginning of that exalted state;—he therefore decidedly declared himself one of its violent supporters, and vindicated the tenth of August and all its horrors with great warmth. As he and his faction made very little ceremony in preparing and rejoicing over the misfortunes of the Royal Family, and glorying in their fall from the throne, so Robespierre and his satellites when it came to their turn to benefit themselves by the weaker‡ atrocity of these pioneers of murder, regicide, and the guillotine, and to act the more savage tyrant, paid as little respect to Roucher as he had done to his sovereign and family, and sent him without scruple to the prison of St. Lazare, under pretence of being suspected; not perhaps having any thing to charge him with in reality.—However that was not of any great consequence, for they dispatched him by the revolutionary tribunal, guillotining him under pretext of a conspiracy in his prison.

During his captivity he constantly corresponded with his daughter; their letters were printed and published some time after his death. They evince at once the work of a poet and of a woman of the most delicate taste and refined literature. On the day of his death, July 27, 1794, he sent his portrait to his wife and daughter, with the following verses:

Ne vous étonnez pas, objets charmans et doux,
Si quelque air de tristesse obscurcit mon visage;
Lorsqu'un savant crayon dessinoit cette image,
On dressoit l'échafaud, et je pensois à vous.

Notwithstanding the Parisian critics, we do not think his poetic talents have been justly appreciated; we shall therefore present the following extract in appeal from their *fiat*, to our reader's judgment. We are inclined to agree with his brother, who has spoken so favourably of his abilities, and given many extracts from his poems in his whimsical work entitled *Mélanges de Physiologie, &c.* reviewed in Panorama, page 525.

Les Glaciers des Alpes.

Monts chantés par Haller, recevez un poëte.
Errant parmi ces monts, imposante retraite,
Au front du Grindelval je m'élève, et je vois.....
Dieu, quel pompeux spectacle étalé devant moi!
Sous mes yeux enchantés la nature rassemble
Tout ce qu'elle a d'horreurs et de beautés ensemble.
Dans un lointain qui fuit un monde entier s'étend.
Et comment embrasser ce mélange éclatant,
De verdure, de fleurs, de moissons ondoyantes,
De paisibles ruisseaux, de cascades bruyantes,
De fontaines, de lacs, de fleuves, de torrens,
D'hommes et de troupeaux sur les plaines errans,
De forêts de sapins au lugubre feuillage,
De terrains éboulés, de rocs minés par l'âge,
Pendans sur des vallons où le printemps fleurit,
De côteaux escarpés où l'automne sourit,
D'abîmes ténébreux, de cimes éclairées,
De neiges couronnant de brûlantes contrées!
Et de glaciers enfin, vaste et solide mer,
Où règne sur son trône un éternel hiver;

* Vide Panorama, pages 70, 533, 747.

† For this infamous epithet, vide Panorama, page 757, in the life of Condorcet.—Amidst the horrible eccentricities of the revolution, no thinking mind can possibly forget that a boasted proselyte to Mahometism should insist upon his being venerated as the temporal head of the Christian religion, and that too in a few years after the prophecy of its total downfal.

‡ In point of cruelty and sanguinary proceedings certainly the Brissotine faction were much inferior to their successors. Even Rabaut de St. Etienne (brother-in-law to Brissot) was hurt at the tyrannical part he was obliged to perform, although it was timidity itself in comparison of Robespierre's system. "Je suis las de ma portion de tyrannie.—I "am tired of my portion of tyranny," said he.—He prophecied too, but forgot to *foresee*, or at least to predict, his own death. He was guillotined on account of being attached to the party of the Gironde, or Brissotins.

Là, pressant sous ses pieds les nuages humides,
Il hérisse les monts de hautes pyramides,
Dont le bleuâtre éclat au soleil s'enflammant,
Change ces pics glacés en rocs de diamant.
Là viennent expirer tous les feux du solstice.
En vain l'astre du jour embrasant l'écrevisse,
D'un déluge de flamme assiége ces déserts;
La masse inébranlable insulte au roi des airs.
Mais trop souvent la neige arrachée à leur cime,
Roule en bloc bondissant, court d'abîme en abîme,
Gronde comme un tonnerre, et grossissant toujours,
A travers les rochers fracassés dans son cours,
Tombe dans les vallons, s'y brise, et des campagnes
Remonte en brume épaisse au sommet des montagnes.

. . . . . .

M. Aimer Charles Marie Nicolai

Had been before the revolution President of the chamber of accounts, and in 1787 was a member of the assemby of notables, and though he does not appear as a literary *aid-de-camp* to the sect of the new system, yet he was, according to the fashion of that day, strongly tinctured with their prevailing tenets. It was no wonder therefore that he should enter a little into the spirit of the revolution, and that he should find his way to the scaffold; "for," as Marmontel says, speaking of him, "not only men of "distinguished merit like Nicolai were sent "there, but those also who were merely "rich; hence the venerable M. Magon's so- "litary answer was, before the revolutionary "tribunal, when they put interrogatories to "him, and demanded his name:—*I am "rich.*"

In the plenitude of Robespierre's power, when, as the Abbé de Lille expresses it in his *Malheur et la Pitié*,

La hache est sans repos, la crainte sans espoir,
Le matin dit les noms des victimes du soir:*

M. Nicolai was thrown into the Luxemburgh, at that time converted into a prison because all the prisons in Paris were already filled with victims; he was shortly after condemned to death by the revolutionary tribunal, under pretext of being an accomplice in the conspiracy of that prison, and guillotined at the age of 47.—His eldest son was sacrificed with him under the same pretext, after having been confined in the Luxemburgh also; he was 24 years old.

. . . . . .

M. Felix Vicq-d'Azyr,

Was physician to the Queen of France, member of the French royal academy, and of the royal academies of sciences, medicine, &c. &c. He was born at Valognes in 1748, where his father practised as a physician. He finished his philosophical studies at Caen, and wished to become a member of the ecclesiastical order; but, in compliance with his father's predilection for his own profession, he studied physic: and arrived in Paris in 1765 where he finally established himself as one of the most eminent of the faculty.

His profession and many other circumstances caused Vicq-d'Azyr to form numberless connections in society. He passed successively from the sittings of the academy to the court, and from the most princely, brilliant, and lively circles to the bed of sickness, to hold consoling conversation with the dying, to whom his professional aid was not less salutary than his soothing eloquence, in dispersing that anxiety and fear which frequently attend the approach of death. Sometimes he purposely sought the company of the literati, to whose conversation he listened with such close attention on every occasion, that he obtained a variety of anecdotes and materials for his historical eulogia which he wrote in honor of so many eminent men. When mixing in the world, and sometimes even in the midst of pleasure, he discovered sources of instruction as numerous as pleasing, and it may truly be said that he studied books, nature, and society, with equal spirit and advantage. Many of those hours which men in general rob existence of by wasting in sleep, Vicq-d'Azyr devoted to close application, and gave himself up to the exercise of his profession and all the avocations which particular circumstances required of him, without even abandoning his favorite literary studies. His numerous occupations, and the effects of an irregular and painful life, united to a mind extremely irritable, produced a severe attack upon his health, and the Revolution encreased his sufferings by the cruel calamities it heaped upon him.

In that deluge of overwhelming horrors, Vicq-d'Azyr found numberless sources of grief and misery. Among those who suffered

* Alluding to the newspapers that reported an account of the deaths of the victims, sometimes in the morning, sometimes in the evening, for they were occasionally guillotined by torch light.—One morning 81 were guillotined:—30 or 40 a day was merely a common occurrence. Nor can this be wondered at, when "with a perfidious and equivocal lan- "guage an hypocritical quackery instituted "the jurisprudence and arbitrary proceedings "of our criminal tribunals—no proofs—no "witnesses—the conscience of the juries "was all that was necessary; and of what "juries?—the organs and supporters of Ro- "bespierre, Lebon, Carrier, Francastel, "and so many other tigers insatiate of human "blood."—*Mémoires de Marmontel*, Vol. IV. p. 266.

in the dreadful events which succeeded each other with such rapidity he daily discovered a multitude of his friends, and his best benefactors; he was not such a cold insensible egotist, nor was he so much overcome by the spirit of party as not to feel for their misfortunes; and very soon the agony of terror affected him to such a degree that it embittered every moment of his life. He vainly endeavoured to overcome it, but his efforts only rendered it more poignant. Bailly, Lavoisier, and many more of his very intimate friends were gone. Revolutionary tyranny threatened all men of superior abilities. How was it possible then for Vicq-d'Azyr to imagine that he should escape in such a state of alarm, and amidst such a mass of afflicting emotions; of which the occasions were so numerous in those times of crime and misfortune? He was also occupied with revising a number of reports relating to the temporary commission, whose benign influence prevented, at that time, the vandalism of the day from destroying the monuments and the chef-d'œuvres of the arts; he was likewise charged with the guidance of the section in which he lived; and he still continued to visit a great number of sick persons, particularly those belonging to the proscribed classes, to whom it was dangerous to shew even the slightest attention. Against such a multiplicity of causes it was not possible to resist, and the first tempestuous circumstance quite overpowered him. Forced to assist at one of those despicable fêtes * in which the *Great Nation*, with an hypocritical and ambitious monster at their head, ACKNOWLEDGED, with affected pomp, the Supreme Being, and the Immortality of the Soul, &c. &c. he suffered much from the extreme heat and the very great fatigue the long procession produced, and was attacked by a disorder on his lungs. It was in vain that every attention and care was administred. His constitution was completely changed, and moral affections being included in the disorder, the horrid image of the revolutionary tribunal being every moment before his eyes, united with the dread of being himself sent to the scaffold, working on his imagination almost to madness, prompted him to order that operation of which M. de la Harpe's paper has given an account, Panorama, page 67, and which Moreau de la Sarthe, the editor of his works, and M. Jean Roi, his nephew, have taken great pains to hide the recital from the public eye, although the calamity terminated in his death, which it is supposed was Vicq-d'Azyr's intention it should do. He died 20th June, 1794, at the time, (the horrors of the revolution excepted) when he had formed numerous projects and hopes totally attached to the advancement of the science in which he excelled, and which he flattered himself would be more worthy the attention of posterity, than any thing he had hitherto accomplished.

* The person who officiated as the Goddess of Reason in one of these insulting spectacles, was the wife of a printer named Momoro, a cruel and severe husband, and a most outrageous revolutionary agrarian. After serving alternately Robespierre and Danton, they mutually rewarded him by very cordially sending him to the scaffold, where he finished his career, unpitied and unlamented. He frequently obliged his wife to perform the most menial offices; and, as she had a fine shewy person, he forced her to exhibit herself as the Goddess of Reason—from the low situation of cook in his kitchen, elevating her to the altar of St. André des Arcs.

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MME. BEATRIX DE CHOISEUIL, DUCHESSE DE GRAMMONT,

Was condemned to death by the revolutionary tribunal, and was guillotined at the age of 64 at Paris, in 1792, under the pretence of being a counter-revolutionist. In the same year was likewise guillotined her relation Mme. Grammont, Duchess of Ossun, at the age of 44. She was one of the ladies in waiting belonging to the Queen.

Neither of these interesting and amiable women were allowed even a confessor (vide Panorama, page 69), yet did they not evince the least pusillanimity; and indeed it must be mentioned to the honour of the fair sex, that almost all the ladies * who were murdered

* We hardly recollect more than one exception, Madame du Barry. She was so much intimidated at the tremendous apparatus of death, that she fainted at the foot of the scaffold, and when she ascended it, she shrieked most piteously, frequently crying out to Samson the executioner, *M. le bourreau, encore un moment*. Notwithstanding, not long before her death she gave a most remarkable proof of her contempt for it, preferring to save the life of her friend rather than her own, and in justice to her memory, we insert the anecdote—the authenticity of which cannot be doubted, as we find it certified in the Rev. Mr. Dutens' "Memoirs of a Traveller, now in Retirement," Vol. V. p. 127.

"A few days before the Countess du Barry was guillotined (8th December 1793) an Irish priest found means to see her in prison, in the *Conciergerie*, and offered to effect her escape, if she could command a certain sum to bribe the jailors and defray the expences of a journey. She asked him whether he could not save two persons. He replied, his plan would admit of saving only one. "Then," said Madame du Barry, "here is an order

during the system of terror, discovered a courage equally heroic, if not superior, to the most undaunted of the men. But above all, the Queen's magnanimity ought never to be forgot. The dignity with which she conducted herself on her trial deserves the greatest honour, and was at once a proof of the falsities of the scandal and opprobrium with which she had been libelled; it may be truly said that she never appeared greater than when before the blood-distilling revolutionary tribunal. After treating with the utmost contempt the silly miserable charges against her, she thus concluded: "I was a Queen, "and you dethroned me—I was a Wife, and "you murdered my husband—I was a Mo-"ther, and you took my children from me. "—Nothing now remains for you but my "blood; glut yourselves with it, then—but "do not make me suffer any longer."

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M. Jaques Cazotte,

Author of the poem d'*Olivier*, and of the romances *le Diable amureux*, *le Lord Impromptu*, and a number of little pleasing pieces, previous to the revolution had been commissary of the marine in the West-Indies. He retired to live at Pierry in Champagne, with a numerous family of which he was the only support. He had been long celebrated in Paris in the *conversazioni* of the great for his pleasing discourse, and the smartness of his repartees, and as M. de la Harpe very justly observes, for his "original turn of mind, "and for his infatuation with the reveries of "the illuminati." At midnight of the 21st August, 1792, he was arrested in his bed, in consequence of the domiciliary visits, and committed to the prison of the Abbaye at Paris, under the pretence of being suspected of attachment to royalty. He remained there until the massacres of the prisons of the 2d and 3d of September; most dutifully attended by his amiable daughter Elizabeth, who was only 17 years of age, and who never quitted him an instant. After the horrid assassination of the faithful Swiss guards in that prison, and that of the Count de Montmorin, and several other noblemen, M. de Cazotte was brought forth, and in the revolutionary jargon ordered *à la Force*—that being their phrase for instant murder. The moment the monsters were beginning their horrible butchery, his daughter threw herself round his neck, clung to his body, and prevented the uplifted instruments of death from falling on him, exclaiming, *No, you shall not touch him until you have taken all my blood.* Her youth, her innocence, her beauty, and her piercing cries, together with the venerable appearance of her father, quite disarmed the cut-throats, who were so much affected that they unanimously cried out, "let's save him, let's save "him," at the same time demanding of him where his enemies were that they might render him justice. Poor Cazotte was quite overcome at such unexpected conduct, and uttered, with tears streaming down his aged cheeks, and falling upon his daughter, "I "cannot have any—for I never did harm to "any body."

It is very singular that the same night Mlle. Sombreuil saved her father by the same means, at the same prison, and that their ages should be exactly the same; M. de Cazotte was 74 and M. de Sombreuil the same, (vide Panorama, p. 752.) and what is more dreadful to relate they both were afterwards sent to the scaffold by the revolutionary tribunal.

M. de Cazotte was immediately transported to the Conciergerie, where that example of filial piety his daughter accompanied him, administering every comfort in her power until the 25th September, when the savage revolutionary tribunal condemned him to the guillotine, and he expired at Place Louis XV. exactly four years and a half after his prophecy of his own death.

We add the following beautiful lines from the Abbé de Lille's *Malheur et la Pitié*, as they allude particularly to M. de Cazotte's fate, and that of M. de Sombreuil.

Cependant au milieu de tant de barbarie,
Lorsque, parmi les maux de ma triste patrie,
La timide Pitié n'osoit lever la voix,
Des rayons de vertus ont brillé quelquefois.
On a vu des enfans s'immoler à leurs pères,
Des frères disputer le trépas à leurs frères.
Que dis-je? Quand Septembre, aux François si fatal,
Du massacre partout donnoit l'affreux signal,
On a vu les bourreaux, fatigués de carnage,
Aux cris de la Pitié laisser fléchir leur rage,
Rendre à sa fille en pleurs un père malheureux;
Et, tout couverts de sang, s'attendrir avec eux.

"for the sum; but go instantly to the Du-"chess de Mortemart and save her: you will "find her concealed in a garret in a certain "house in Calais." The priest, after urging Madame du Barry, in vain, to seize the opportunity of escaping from her fate, yielded to her generous resolution, took the money, proceeded to Calais, drew the Duchess de Mortemart from her asylum, disguised her as a woman of ordinary rank, and made her travel with him on foot, saying, as he passed along, that he was a poor constitutional priest, and that the Duchess was his wife. They were hailed by the people with testimonies of joy; and in this manner they travelled through the French armies, and arrived at Ostend; from whence the priest passed into England with Madame de Mortemart, whom I have since seen in London.

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We shall now subjoin a few particulars respecting the last person who *was allowed a confessor*, which was the King, as M. Cazotte foretold. (Vide Panorama, page 111.)

It is well known that the Abbé Edgeworth, an Irish priest, was chosen by the unfortunate Louis XVI. to confess and prepare him for death. This worthy ecclesiastic then resided with his mother and sister at Paris, and the following is an extract from a letter he wrote to one of his friends in England, December 21, 1792, just one month *before* the murder of the king.

"*Paris, 21st December*, 1792.—You are undoubtedly surprised, my dear and honoured friend, that while the clergy of France are flocking to England for shelter and support, I should remain here amidst the ruins of this afflicted, persecuted Church. Indeed I have often wished to fly to that land of true liberty and solid peace; and to share, with others, of your hospitable board, where to be a stranger in distress is a sufficient title. But Almighty God has baffled all my measures, and ties me down to this land of horror, by chains which I am not at liberty to shake off. The case is, the *malheureux maître* charges me not to quit the country; as I am the person whom he intends to prepare him for death, if the iniquity of the nation should commit that last act of cruelty and parricide. I prepare myself for death, for I am convinced that popular rage will not allow me to survive one hour after that tragic act; but I am resigned. My life is of no consequence: the preservation of it, or the shedding of my blood, is not connected with the happiness or misery of millions. Could my life save him *qui positus est in ruinam et resurrectionem multorum*, I should willingly lay it down, and should not then die in vain: *fiat voluntas tua!* Receive this unfeigned assurance, perhaps for the last time, of my respect and affection for you, which I hope even death will not destroy."

We shall close with an extract from a letter the Abbé Edgeworth's sister wrote to a friend, February 10, 1793, near three weeks *after* the king's death.

". . . . . The King, perceiving that his life was aimed at, sent to request my brother would attend him; who, without the smallest hesitation complied with the request. Though he carefully avoided mentioning the matter to me, I had a presentiment of danger, which haunted me incessantly. My brother, fully aware of the hazard he should incur in the discharge of his duty to the King, set his affairs in order; and, not to shock our sensibility, he departed without bidding us the adieu which he supposed would be an eternal one. He had already prepared a neighbour to bring the afflicting tidings; it was then necessary I should be informed of it, as soon as he should be gone. We still concealed it from my mother, pretending he was gone to pass the night with a sick person. On the evening of January 20, he was taken from his house, and conducted to the Committee, where he was examined and interrogated whether he was willing to undertake the awful function. He was thence conducted to the sad and dark dwelling of the most innocent, as well as most unfortunate, of men. I cannot describe to you the agonies I experienced in knowing he was shut up within a hundred bolts, and surrounded by a thousand tigers. He passed the night in hearing the last farewell, or rather the cries and groans, of an inconsolable family, sufficient to pierce the most hardened hearts. It would even have been some consolation to have been left without the unfeeling witnesses of their anguish, but this little boon was refused them—their guards never lost sight of them. The King once approaching my brother, said,—'This is indeed a dreadful mo-'ment;' yet in an instant he recovered his fortitude, and talked of different subjects, particularly of the Church of France; asked after many of its dignified pastors, expressed the most lively feeling of the generosity of the English towards them, and this with a coolness and steadiness of mind that was surprising. After which he said, he had omitted to speak of a more important affair, meaning with respect to himself. My brother reminded him that there were some preparations to be attended to:—he had no need to speak of them; all had been done. The King then went to bed, and slept some hours. Knowing that his hair would be cut off by the executioner, and desiring to avoid that indignity, he requested in the morning the attendance of a hair-dresser, but that small indulgence was also barbarously denied him. Early in the morning my brother proposed to celebrate mass; to which his illustrious disciple acceded with visible pleasure, but doubted whether permission could be obtained. My brother repaired immediately to the Council, then sitting, to solicit this privilege. They expressed great surprise, and started many difficulties, all of which my brother removed. 'If,' said he, 'a priest is want-'ing, I am one; if ornaments, they may 'be found in the next chapel; and the Host 'you yourselves may furnish.' At length they consented; desiring him to write down what was necessary to be provided, for they knew nothing about it. Mass was then performed, at which the faithful Clery assisted;

and the King, having received the communion, retired with my brother into a closet, the partition of which was only paper. Some one knocked at the door. 'Behold,' he said calmly, 'they summon me.' It was, however, merely to say something to him. They knocked a second time, to announce the fatal moment. He understood it so; and looking at his watch, said, 'The hour is come.' He entered the carriage with a majestic step, accompanied by my brother and two fusileers, and holding a book in his hand: he repeated prayers all the way. Coming to the fatal spot, he said, 'We are arrived;' and expressed a wish that nothing might happen to my brother, who offered his hand to assist him in ascending the scaffold. The King walked across it, with an intrepid air, to the other side; when, with a loud voice, he uttered the following words:—'About to appear before God, I declare for the last time, that 'I am innocent of the crimes of which I am 'accused. It is not to the French nation 'that I impute the guilt about to be committed; but to some individuals alone, whom 'I pray God to pardon, as I now pardon 'them with all my heart.' He would have continued to speak; but Santerre, fearing the impression the King's words might make upon the surrounding multitude, ordered the drums to beat, and the Monarch was silenced. The executioners cut off his hair, while he uncovered his neck himself. They offered to tie his hands; he opposed them. They insisted: there were four of them. My brother, apprehending violence, said to him, 'Sire, this submission is a sacrifice you have 'yet to make; it will be another point of 'resemblance to your Divine Master.' The King instantly yielded with the meekness of a lamb. ——I can no more——I weep tears of blood when I tell you he is gone. This prodigy of fortitude and patience, this Christian hero, is gone to receive the reward of his virtues! My brother continued with him to the last: and he did not die of grief; he did not even faint; but had strength to place himself on his knees, and did not rise till his habit was stained with the blood flowing from his sovereign's sacred head, which was borne round the scaffold amidst the shouts of *Vive la Nation!* &c."

We expect to be able in some future number to present our readers with more particulars relative to the latter moments of the truly illustrious Louis XVI., as we know there exists an affecting account of this subject (entitled *sur les derniers momens de Louis XVI.)* which is not yet published, said to be written by the Abbé Edgeworth himself. In the mean time we thought the above letters (extracted from *Dutensiana)* would prove not uninteresting to our readers.

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We have now concluded our attempt to appropriate those events hinted at in the paper which M. de la Harpe left behind him. We have traced the characters of the persons mentioned, in a variety of instances, and have convicted several of them of amply deserving the fate they met with. Charity may induce us to hope, of some, that they did not foresee the consequences of their actions and conduct, or the fate of their country; as they would not believe the fate which awaited themselves: but charity itself finds no apology for the enormities we have exposed, nor discovers any palliation for those uncommon and inhuman atrocities of which others were guilty. May the lesson taught by the deaths of these men, warn all who are endowed with talents, learning, influence, activity, and energy, to moderate the ebullition of their unhallowed passions, and to check those emotions which originate in pride, self conceit, and arrogance, but terminate in personal destruction, in general, and widely extended calamity. When too late,

——The monstrous sight
Struck them with horror backward, but far worse
Urged them behind,——
Hell heard th' insufferable noise; Hell saw,
——and would have fled
Affrighted; but strict Fate had cast too deep
Her dark foundations, and too fast had bound.

Had the abilities of these literati been directed to the *real* advantage of their country, as resulting from order, respectability, and rectitude, what blessings might they not have lived to enjoy from their sovereign and his people!—what honours might not have attended their memories to the latest posterity!

It deserves remark, that M. Cazotte in his predictions does not include the master of the house where the meeting took place: this may be added to a hint we have already dropped, in proof that this "man of the highest talents" was the Duke de Nivernois; as that nobleman died a natural death.

The life of M. de la Harpe is translated for insertion in the Panorama; but as it cannot be comprised in one number, we postpone it to the commencement of our second volume; as we do not wish that any mutilated subject should injure our work in the opinion of our subscribers. That this *philosopher* should live to become a christian, as he really did, was esteemed not the least extraordinary article in M. Cazotte's prediction. His life is a history of the state of literature in his time

DIDASCALIA.

Drury-Lane Theatre.

On Friday, Dec. 26, a new pantomime was brought out at this Theatre, called the *Enchanters, or Harlequin Sultan.* We trust our readers will not expect a long account of productions of this kind; we shall therefore only remark that the plot is in the usual stile of this species of entertainment—fine scenery, machinery, dresses, decorations, &c.

Saturday, Dec. 27, Mr. Ray, jun. from Cheltenham, appeared in the character of Young Marlowe, in *She Stoops to Conquer.* He was very favorably received; his action is easy, and his delivery good.

On Monday, Jan. 12, a new opera, entitled *False Alarms, or My Cousin*, written by Mr. Kenny, was produced at this Theatre, the characters of which are as follow.

Sir Damon Gayland	Mr. Wroughton.
Edgar Gayland . .	Mr. Braham.
Tom Surfeit . . .	Mr. Bannister.
Lieutenant M'Lary	Mr. Johnstone.
Plod	Mr. Mathews.
Gabriel	Mr. Penley.
Grinvelt	Mr. Wewitzer.
Bumper	Mr. Dignum.
Lady Gayland . .	Mrs. Mountain.
Caroline Sedley . .	Miss Duncan.
Emily	Mrs. Bland.
Miss Umbrage . .	Miss Pope.
Susan	Mad. Storace.

The heroine of the piece is Miss Sedley, who is beloved by Sir Damon Gayland, a jealous old rake, and at the same time is instrumental to his reconciliation with his young bride. To effect this, she comes, with the privacy of Lady Gayland, on a visit to the family, in the disguise of an officer; in which concealment she sees the very hearts of two lovers of her own, and makes her election of the honorable one, an Irish Lieutenant, M'Lary. There is another love-plot, in which Edgar is the hero, Emily the heroine, and Tom Surfeit the interloper. This ends as satisfactorily as the other.

Having given a slight idea of the plot, we are sorry to be under the necessity of censuring this piece; but when we enquire its pretensions to dramatic merit, we must pronounce it totally destitute of originality and character—not a spark of wit could we find in it: and indeed all the characters have been before the public over and over again, and in every instance much better. Our readers will readily perceive the truth of our remark when we give them the list, which consists of a pert chamber-maid; a dull stupid drunken valet (Germanized, we presume, in compliment to our taste for the *original* German drama, with which we have been lately surfeited;) an intriguing jealous husband; a sentimental wife; a dashing young lady, dressed in officer's cloaths; a would-be-learned lady, with no other pretensions than wearing a trencher cap; an ignorant citizen; a low Atall, and his impudent valet; an Irish lieutenant; and an English captain, so desperately in love that he sits down on the stage to sing a ballad in praise of his fair one, and accompanies it himself on the grand piano forte. "Does this become a soldier?" In times like these should the stage be suffered to countenance such unwarlike *tweedle dum* and *tweedle dee* captains?—If so, all we can say is that "captain Braham is your only man;" for his *Smile* and *Tear* had the best possible effect, and we have no scruple in affirming that it opportunely saved the play from sinking; it put the audience in a good humour although they had already yawned: forgetting perhaps that much ought not to be expected from an opera.

Tom Surfeit was as ably performed by Bannister as the insipidity of the character would allow. What it wanted in wit he charitably supplied with swearing and blustering. Indeed the custom of swearing oaths has of late become such a very common practice upon the stage, that we suppose the performers imagine it makes amends for deficiency of wit. Hence the frequent *dammes* of Messrs. Bannister, Matthews, and some others, amounting to at least a dozen of vulgar oaths; which we conceive to be most disgraceful, and equally despicable in the author who suffers them, and in the actor who so far forgets his situation as to use them. Nor can we commend the liberty taken by Bannister in telling the spectators they had put him out, when one of his songs was very *partially* encored, at which the *generality* testified a most decided disapprobation. Had he been playing *punchinello* at Bartholomew fair it might have been in character, but at the theatre *royal* of Drury Lane—*We did not like it by no manner of means*, as his author says.

All the performers did their utmost; but we cannot refrain from noticing Miss Duncan, who acted and sung with great spirit and judgment. She gave *The North breeze blew keenly, and deep was the gloom*, with the happiest effect, and was unanimously encored.

The music is the joint production of King and Braham, and does them credit; indeed some of it is very pretty, particularly the two songs we have mentioned. King's is the most pleasing; Braham has introduced so much of science and execution as frequently to tire instead of delight.

Covent-Garden Theatre.

On Monday, Dec. 29, was produced at this Theatre a new pantomime called *Harlequin and Mother Goose, or the Golden Egg*, full of splendid scenery, machinery, tricks, &c. and intended as a treat for the holiday folks; it is one of the best we have witnessed.

SUCCINCT ACCOUNT OF POMERANIA.

According to the latest advices from the continent, there is reason to think that the German dominions of the King of Sweden will speedily become the seat of events which may attract the attention of Europe: we therefore embrace the present opportunity of submitting to our readers, the latest information concerning those countries.

Pomerania is a strip of land lying on the borders of the Baltic: 60 geographical miles in length: 13 in breadth. Towards the east, its adjoins Pomerelia; on the south it borders Poland; on the west the Duchy of Mecklenburgh; and on the north the Baltic. It is a flat country, but has some few mountains; the highest of which is the Cholten-berg, between Cæslin and Zanow. In some places part of the soil is sandy, but in general it is rich and fertile. Beans, turnips, flax, hemp, and fruit, grow plentifully. The trees are very fine, especially the oaks. This country is famous for a breed of excellent geese of a very large size. These geese, the smoaked hams, and the salted salmon of Pomerania, are reckoned the best in Germany. Pomerania contains 68 towns, and about 460,000 souls. Several among these towns, such as Stettin, Stutgard, Colberg, and Costins, have rich manufactures. Such as are situated on the sea coast, carry on a very extensive trade, as may be inferred from the articles of merchandise which, in one year, were exported from Stettin to Holland, France, Sweden, Prussia, and England, viz.:

10,089 lbs. of starch:
72,423 lbs. of antimony:
1,117 cwt. of arsenic:
106 cwt. of tin:
103 pieces of worsted stuff:
251 pieces of flannel:
107 tons of lapis calaminaris.
6,649 cases of glass:
33,186 toises of wood for fuel:
130,960 rixdollars in value, of timber:
5,179 planks:
24 cases of linseed:
436,960 bricks:
639 cwt. of brass wire:
147 tons of potash:
408 cwt. of madder:
233 tons of soap:
5,812 cwt. of tobacco:
3,448 pieces of woollen cloth:
775 cwt. of wool.

The whole of the above was exported on board 1,671 vessels, besides 97 other ships that sailed from the same port in ballast.

Pomerania is divided into *anterior*, and *ulterior*. That part of *anterior* Pomerania which belongs to Sweden is composed, 1. Of the island and principality of Rugen. This island, now at almost an English mile's distance from the continent of which it was formerly a part, is 49 miles in circumference; the soil is very fertile and abounds in cattle; the fisheries also are very productive. It contains 27 parishes, divided into four jurisdictions; 2. Of the country of Stralsund, the chief town of which, bearing the same name, is the capital of Swedish Pomerania, and is situated on the straight of Gellen, between the terra firma, and the isle of Rugen. There is a considerable college in this town; it has many independent citizens, a number of wealthy inhabitants, and a brisk trade. Stralsund was built in 1230, it was one of the Hanse Towns, and enjoyed great privileges. It is the residence of the government; and here the states of Pomerania are assembled. In this city are manufactures of woollen and linen cloths, of starch, and brandies. It has sustained several sieges. It was taken by the elector of Brandenburgh in 1578, but Wallenstein was obliged to abandon the siege of it in 1628. It was taken and ravaged in 1715; was restored to Sweden at the peace in 1720. It was included in the agreement between Sweden and Russia in 1805, and its defences have since been increased. Nevertheless, it is understood, that, although the fortifications on the land side protect it against a *coup de main*, it cannot sustain a regular attack. 3. Of the principality of Barth, which is ten miles long, and six broad; 4. Of the county of Gutzhow; 5. Of the Barony of Wolgast. These different countries contain about 160,000 inhabitants; and produce an annual income of 240,000 rixdollars.

A more distinct and particular conception of the island of Rugen may be obtained from a work published at Altona, in 1805, in 8vo. entitled: *Streifzüge, &c.*; or, Excursions through the island of Rugen, in letters from a native.

Rügen has lately become an object worthy the attention of travellers, particularly among the Germans, on account of its romantic scenery, fertile soil, and the great hospitality of the natives. The author of this work, who styles himself an *Indigena*, thinking that the accounts given by his predecessors, Rellstab, Zællner, and Nernst, were not so satisfactory as they might have been, has favoured the German public with his tour through the island during the summer of 1803. We are the more induced to present a few extracts, as we know of no account of this island in our own language.

"Tacitus speaks of a German nation, the *Rugii*, who probably lived on the coast of the east sea. Jornandes also mentions them, and divides them into *Ulm-Rugii*, and *Ethel*

Rugii. Helmod, the monk, a writer of the 12th century, describes the country as an *insula, quam incolunt Rani, qui et Rugiani vocantur*. In low German, at present, it is often called *Roiyen*, and in all official documents it is styled the principality of Rügen.

"Rügen lies on the northern frontier of Germany, and stretches along the coast of Swedish Pomerania from N. W. to S. E. Its greatest distance from the continent is rather more than three German miles, and its nearest approximation about ¼ of a German mile. Its greatest length is six miles and a half, and breadth between five and six. Our author states the population at 27,426 souls, among whom 16,733 may be reckoned as vassals.

"Rügen contains no river; but springs, streams, lakes, and canals, are not wanting. Owing to its elevated situation, it is subject to cold east winds; and storms pour from the westward. The winters are severe and long, so that the bays and creeks are covered with ice as late as the month of April.

"The most remarkable minerals are amber, chalk, quartz, granite, in immense blocks, porcelain and brick earths. The island is so covered with stones, that it is pretended there has been a shower of them.

"Eight hundred species of plants may be reckoned as indigenous, of which some are of the greatest importance to the trade of the island. The forests are composed of the common timber-trees of other countries.

"Wheat, rye, barley, oats, pease, buckwheat, coleworts, millet, and vetches, are the objects of agriculture; and the annual exportation of the five first mentioned is very considerable. It may be reckoned among the most fertile provinces of the north of Germany.

"They enumerate from twenty to thirty kinds of fish, among which trout and mackrel are the scarcest. Herrings, in February and March, as well as in autumn, are caught in great numbers. Fishing constitutes the chief employment of most of the inhabitants on the coast.

"Rügen contains two cities (Bergen is the principal) two market-towns, 200 villages, and 336 large and small estates, farm-houses, &c.

"The natives are divided into two main classes, separated by rigid boundaries, viz. Free-born, and vassals. The nobility, who belong to the former, are proprietors of the major part of the island, and enjoy many privileges and immunities. They are distinguished from the nature of their possessions, as Feudal and Allodial. The Feudal are a peculiar corps, styled the Rügian knighthood, and wear a particular uniform. The nobility, in general, are stated to be more civilized, than those in many of the German provinces; the young men enter the Swedish or Prussian armies, or cultivate their own estates.

"The clergy are also exempt from all taxes and assessments; but are subject to the royal consistory. The King of Sweden is head of the church, and patron of sixteen livings. They are the most enlightened of the natives, and hospitality is one of their great characteristics. Far removed from modern infidelity, and tolerant in matters of religion, they do not denounce anathemas against those who differ from them.

"The vassals *(homines glebæ adscripti)* compose the greatest part of the natives, and are divided into crown, feudal, allodial, church, and civic subjects. Should a noble, or a civic, vassal, wish to buy his freedom, the price depends entirely on the will of his lord; but a certain sum is fixed to be paid by the male and female subjects of the crown.

"A Fire office was established in 1769. In 1803, the value of the property insured amounted to 1,537,448 crowns. When any building is burnt down, three-fourths of the estimated value are paid to the proprietor, to which the other insurers must contribute their proportions, according to the sum standing in their names in the register of the office."

Nuptial Ceremony in the Island of Rügen.

"On the wedding day the guests assemble in the afternoon, but do not meet together in the same house; for the relations and friends of the bridegroom go to his house, and the bride invites her party separately. Then the two parties proceed to church, where they unite, and the bridegroom greets his mistress for the first time with a squeeze of the hand. After the ceremony both sexes separate, and the women accompany the bride to the warm-beer house, where she is presented with a pot of warm beer with raisins in it. Towards evening, one of the bride's attendants arrives, fires a pistol before the door, presents a can of beer to the company, and repeats some verses. Afterwards, the bride with her party retire to the house where the marriage is to be concluded. The supper commences with a large dish of rice, which, with the other dishes, are brought up by the butler and cup-bearer, the bride's attendants.

"The bride wears a crown made of box-leaves with gold and silver foil. The bridegroom is only distinguished by a white neck-handkerchief. The butler and cup-bearer receive white handkerchiefs from the bride, and when the former brings up the dish of rice, she binds it round his arm. The bride and bridegroom share the expenses of the wedding, in proportion to the number of guests invited by each."

Celebration of Harvest-Home in the Island of Rügen

"The harvest generally begins about the middle of August. Rye is the first grain to be cut, which is done with the scythe: the sickle is not in common use. The honour of being first mower has given rise to a singular custom called "The Victory;" whence the proverb "who comes first, mows first." When a field of corn is to be mowed, whoever is inclined to be the first goes very early to the field, takes a few strokes with the scythe, and then lays himself down till his fellow-labourers appear. But it often happens that a rival has been before hand with him, and calls out that he need not trouble himself, as *he* has already gained the victory. Sometimes a third unexpectedly starts up in another place as victor, and this kind of rivalship causes a great deal of mirth. Yet the mowers, to avoid all disputes, have bound themselves by certain regulations.

"When the harvest is got in, the landlord generally gives his labourers a supper, and weddings are often celebrated at this season. In the afternoon the family, with their guests, are assembled round the table. The conversation relates to the weather, the harvest, the landing of the French, &c. On a sudden, the sound of violins and fifes is heard; a procession of men and women advance from the barn, preceded by their banner, which is a harvest crown composed of yew, box, gold-tinsel, ribbands, and gilt apples, all artfully arranged. While the landlord and his friends are coming out, those who form the procession seat themselves. When they are all quiet, one of the young women presents the crown to the landlord with a poetical address.

"Then the master and mistress dance a short minuet, give the crown to another couple, and so on. If a bridal pair are present, they dance first, with the crown. But the life of the feast is after supper. All kinds of character dances are then introduced, such as the shoemaker's dance, the weaver's dance, the wink dance, &c. But the most original is the shepherd's dance, which consists of a pantomimical representation of sheep-shearing. The movements are all very violent, the men whoop and hollow, and the brandy-bottle passes briskly round. At midnight, the married and single form two parties, the former to protect the crown of the bride, the latter to force her from the dance. At last the married carry the day, and the crown (which the bride has lost in the fray) is replaced by a cap; and then the young women's dance begins. Thus they continue till broad daylight.

"Of the islands adjacent to Rügen, the island Oe is very small; and only contains one family."

The author has omitted to mention that the porcelain earth is found on the island of Hiddensee; which furnishes a considerable manufactory at Stralsund. The small island of Pulitz, lying not far from Bergen, on the Jasmund territory, is a most charming and romantic spot. Jasmund is the part most visited, and the most interesting in the island. The shore of the adjacent island Moen is high, and greatly resembles the shore of Jasmund. Its highest point is called *Königstecht*, King's seat; and another *Königen's-stecht*, Queen's seat. The author controverts the opinion, that the seat of the worship of the Goddess Hertha was ever removed to Rügen. This Goddess was, undeniably, worshipped by German nations which never lived here.

The German reviewer in the "Allgemeine Literatur Zeitung" considers the work before us as the most complete of those lately published on this subject. The voyage of Zællner has merit, but the author's stay on the island was too short for the perfection of his work.

ACCOUNT OF THE SCHAMANIC RELIGION IN SIBERIA.—*Translated from Sontag's Russian Extracts.*

Among all the religions of Asiatic Russia, the Schamanic paganism has the greatest number of disciples. The Tunguses, Buraetes, Ostiaks, Samojedes, Kamtschadales, and most of the northern and eastern nations are devoted to it. The more confused the ideas of rude nations are with regard to Gods, Spirits, Souls, &c. the less strange will it appear, that their religious representations differ, and are sometimes more gross or refined; more rational, or defective. On the whole, however, they only acknowledge *one* religion; namely, that which usually attends the most savage state of human nature, which worships a number of good and evil deities, mostly very uncouth representations; and brings offerings rather from fear than gratitude.

The most common name, by which the Asiatic magicians are known, is *Schaman*. But they only bear this epithet among the Tunguses, Buraetes and Ostiaks. The Tartarian heathen, called them *Cham*, *Ajun*, and *Abys*; the Samojedes, *Tadyb*. These are all synonymous. They have not among all the heathen nations the same occupations, customs, and arts, but their appointment is universally similar.

When a child shews a naturally weak habit of body, is subject to the cramp, and has copious bleedings at the nose, he is declared a proper subject to become a *Schaman*. When he is two years of age, an old priest takes him home to educate him, according to a preconcerted method of dedication, for his future situation. Among the Zculents, the of-

fice of *Cham* is hereditary; so that the son is instructed by the father. Besides an early initiation, the *Schamans* augment their knowledge by information from other old members of the Order. Most of them, like their countrymen, must maintain themselves by hunting, fishing, or breeding of cattle. Only the rich nations pay the labours of their *Schamans* with cattle, so as to enable them to live. After their decease they become demi-gods, and thus receive from their successors the same honours which they, during their life, had paid to higher powers.

Their peculiar dress is in itself a part of their art, and shews their views of subduing the imagination by terror. It consists of a long leathern robe, covered with stuffed snakes, eagles' claws, strips of skins, little bells, rings, and idols made of tin. In consequence, these robes cannot be very light; and a traveller has asserted that he was incapable of lifting one; yet the *Schamans* can use violent exertions under them. The bonnet is still more formidable, if possible; for it is stuck with owls' feathers, and is well provided with horns. Sometimes they wear, besides, armour on the arms and legs. The dress is entirely optional, and those who are conversant in the business, can attract homage even from the manner of putting on their dress.

Their most common instrument is the drum, which is made of willow or birch. It is three feet and a span long, covered at the top with skin, and open underneath; with a cross-stick by way of handle. The sun, moon, and stars, trees, rein-deer, horses, snakes, and idols are depicted on the skin. The drum-stick is covered with skin to deaden the sound, or bow-formed, and furnished with a claw, or a horn.

Schamanism has no temples; nevertheless, particular hills, rivers, forests, and mountains are set apart for religious ceremonies. But the peculiar scenes of incantations are the *Jurtes*, especially at night; where the light of the fire in a smoky hut, and the surrounding darkness, strengthen the impressions of sorcery.

The occupations of the *Schamans* are certainly very diversified, but all relate to their more immediate connection with the gods. Most of the *Schamanic* heathen believe in a kind of superior godhead; but he does not engage in the affairs of the world, they being left to inferior deities. These are divided into two classes, good and evil; but are frequently confounded, through the extreme ignorance of their worshippers. As almost every object in nature, and every human transaction, has its particular propitious deity, so the devils are present every where; and every evil in the world is the work of a demon, who makes that his particular occupation. The good deities may be offended, and therefore reconciliation must be made with them; the evil spirits must be appeased, or expelled.

All religious ceremonies are arranged and performed by the *Schamans*, especially the sacrifices. The deities are as accommodating as their worshippers are poor. The greatest offering they require is a rein-deer, or a horse; but they are often satisfied with a new metal image, with a duck, a weasel, or a fish. Offerings are made in cases of misfortune; also after prosperous events. Many nations hold annual feasts. Another part of the *Schaman's* office is, among the shepherd nations, to consecrate the cattle. As all the evils in the world are the work of bad spirits, it is no wonder that the *Schamans* are much engaged with the sick, whom they heal by all kinds of enchantments, after having discovered the cause of the malady by inspecting the entrails of victims. They have the most trouble with the *dead*, particularly in impeding the return of the departed spirits.

The *Schamans* also prepare idols of wood, tin, or old rags; but not much art is employed, for the best are monstrous and unshapen. They use the drum to call up ghosts, and to exorcise them. When they are consulted on any important affair, they light a fire, smoke tobacco, and then beat the drum; afterwards they caper about the fire in strange convulsions, and often with sabres, and a horrible howl. In about half an hour the spirit appears, with which they fight; and as no one else sees any thing, they assert that they often have to contend with very powerful ghosts. At last they throw something into the air, that belongs to the petitioner, by which the answer is conveyed into the drum, which the *Schaman* holds to his ear to return the wished-for information. There are other incantations for searching into futurity. A blade-bone of mutton is thrown into the fire, and the cracks and marks it assumes are tokens of the future. Others throw forty small sticks into the air, let them fall on the drum, and presage events from their positions. Others answer questions according to the flight of an arrow, or the twang of a bow-string.—There are also female *Schamans*, who use nearly the same system of sorcery.

AN ACCOUNT OF THE OSTIAKS, NEAR BERESOW, IN SIBERIA.—*By a Lady. From the same Work.*

Before the Russians conquered Siberia, it was under the dominion of the Tatars, who gave the name of *Ouschtaik*, signifying "savage," to the nations which inhabit it, as a mark of their contempt: hence they were called Ostiaks.

The young females are pretty, but when they have been married a few years, they become the more ugly; and the old women are

frightfully hideous. Their faces are flat, pale yellow, and full of wrinkles. Some few wear stockings, trowsers, and waistcoats, like the men, made of fish-skins, leather, or of coarse cloth. But, generally, their whole wardrobe consists of a sheep-skin pelisse without any thing under it, fastened with a girdle. They plait their hair into two long tresses, which are held together underneath, by a twist. The rich wear long strips of cloth hanging from the head, ornamented with figures of horses, rein-deer, and fish, in tin, copper, or brass. Young females wear crowns with the same emblems. All wear very long ear-rings, of different kinds of coral. A veil covers the whole head, which the married women only open in the presence of their mothers. They also delineate figures, with soot, on their hands, arms and legs, and then prick the skin till the blood comes, which leaves blue marks.

The houses, food and living of the Ostiaks are worthy of each other: that is, poor and filthy in the highest degree. Their summer tents may be tolerable, but their winter habitations are horrible holes, more below than above ground. Sometimes six families live in one of them. Instead of a window they have a large piece of ice, which they preserve in a frozen state by pouring water over it. In the centre of the hut, stands the common hearth, where every one prepares his own food, without any regard to stated hours. Only imagine the constant smoke, the grease, and the smell of the victuals, which mostly consists of fish half putrified—add to it, that the children and dogs satisfy the calls of nature in the hut —and you have a model of the temple of filth. The food may very properly represent the victims; which consist of raw, dried or frozen fish, bears, foxes, dogs, and rein-deer, always in a carrion state.

Like many other parts of the world, the women are considered as the chief domestic animals: all falls on their shoulders. The men hunt, fish, and sleep. Preparing the food, domestic arrangements, boiling of oil, dressing pelts and fish-skins, making nets and cloths; all these devolve to the wife. Besides, the care of children follows of course; for the female Ostiaks are too poor to be unnatural mothers, and to let their children be crippled by hirelings. They sometimes suckle them till they are five years old. But only when there are no young foxes: for, would you believe it?—their attention to these animals is so great (the skins being the prime objects of trade), that when the cubs are caught very young the women must give them the breast. With all this barbarism, a man never allows himself to strike his wife, let her faults be ever so great. Yet certainly not from respect, but out of avarice. For the wife, after being beaten, is entitled to return to her parents and demand her dowry, without the husband's recovering what he paid for her; for women are a regular merchandize. They are bought according to the fortune expected, from 10 to 100 rein-deer; and some wedding clothes. To have more than one wife, is only allowed to the heathen Ostiaks; yet the baptized ones do not stand upon ceremony.

When the purchase of the wife is settled to the satisfaction of both parties, it is confirmed by a suitable feast, with dancing, singing and drunkenness. The music and dances are mostly *extemporized*; the latter are very characteristic. They have not the charms of English country dances of four-and-twenty couple, but they possess other attractive qualities. They consist of a kind of pantomimical burlesque. The dancers partly represent their methods of hunting, fishing and fowling, and partly the position, gait, and properties of certain animals; sometimes they imitate the manners of the Russians; and they are always accompanied with appropriate music.

The female Ostiaks have one piece of property, namely a particular goddess in a forest some distance from Beresow, which is inaccessible to the Russians. The women have small wooden figures of the goddess for their private devotions. Affectionate widows (where will not tenderness stray to?) likewise venerate the remembrance of their husbands, by wooden puppets, which they pretend to feed, and take to their beds.—When a woman dies, she is carried to the grave by females only.

The curious are referred to the "Costume of Russia" for representations of the figures and dresses of the Ostiaks.

INCIDENTAL HINTS ON THE ORIGIN OF IMITATIVE DANCING.

We take occasion from the incidents mentioned in the foregoing articles, to call the attention of our readers to what may very plausibly be proposed, as the origin of characteristic dancing. We find these practices among nations, whose manners, most assuredly, have not been depraved from truly natural expressions, by excessive refinement among themselves, nor by ideas borrowed from others who affect the distinctions of enlightened and polite. They may, therefore, be accepted as almost natural to man in the lowest state of society: and they form, of course, a part of the history of human nature. We shall not attempt to treat this subject as it might be treated; but shall consider ourselves as limited, though not confined, to that view of it which arises from the preceding communications.

We have seen, above, that the Ostiaks re-

present the position, gait, and properties of certain animals:—also the manners of the Russians; and, no doubt, of what other strangers may happen to visit them. In like manner, the dances of the Kamstchadales are imitations of the actions of the bear, that being the animal best known to them: and they exhibit, not so much the expectations and sentiments of the hunter, the *human* actor in the scene, as the alarms, terrors, and tricks exhibited by the subject of their chase; *his* examination of the traps laid for him; *his* awkward handling of what he grasps, whether billet or musket; *his* evasions and shifts; *his* clumsy gallop; *his* climbing of trees, or other modes of escape. It appears then, that these dumb shew mimicries are the resource of savage nations for entertainment; they are bodily attitudes, not mental exertions; they are repetitions, not originalities.

As remarkable an account as any because most detailed, is the ceremonies described in Collins's History of the Colony of New South Wales, as used in admitting the youths to the *degree* of men. They offer the rudiments of character dances in their rudest state.

The first character assumed on an occasion of this kind, we learn, was that of the dog, and the performers crawled upon all fours, parading in this manner several times round and round. The second character was that of hunters of the Kangaroo; but this was quickly exchanged for the *personation* of the Kangaroo itself: they fitted themselves with long tails made of grass, which they fastened to the hinder part of their girdles, and proceeded—now jumping along—then lying down and scratching themselves, as those animals do when basking in the sun. A succeeding scene appears to represent the effects of battle, and the slaughter of enemies: others describe the arts of attack and defence.

We may, then, place this imitation of animals as the very lowest, and, therefore, as the original kind of dance. An amusement, exhibiting skill and dexterity; knowledge, too, of that kind, which was accessible to the actors and spectators; and vigour of body, but not cultivation of mind.

A second class of dances, though allied to the former, is the imitation of particular occurrences. So we see hunting, fighting, &c. at New South Wales; the manners of the Russians, &c. among the Ostiaks; and, at Otaheite, something very like the landing of the English, was presented to Capt. Cooke. This description of dances was adopted by the politest nations of antiquity with which we are acquainted, was even appointed to be repeated on periodical occasions, and has retained its establishment to this day. Such, for instance, is the "Ariadne dance" at Athens, representing the adventures of Theseus in the labyrinth of Crete, when sent to destroy the Minotaur. The leading dancer, waving a white handkerchief, represents Ariadne with the *clue*, which she gave Theseus for his direction and safety; while the accompanying dancers, are grouped in such a manner, as to form a labyrinth, through which the principal dancer "wins her winding way." This is retained; and is danced by the young men, in the streets of Athens; but, by the young women, in a more retired situation, on the banks of the Sperchius. To have maintained itself for so many ages, and amidst so many national revolutions, this *commemorative dance* must surely have been esteemed highly interesting.

Plato divides dances into military, peaceful, and mixed. The rudiments of the military, we have seen, among savages; they could have varied only in paraphernalia, among the civilized tribes of men: the glitter and clang of arms, which marked the Pyrrhic dance of antiquity, impart no essential distinction from the chief's "beating time with a club on a "shield;" and "striking the shield with "his club; while at every third stroke, the "whole party poised and presented their "spears at him, pointing them inwards, and "touching the centre of his shield;" as practised in New South Wales.

The military dances of the ancients imitated the movements of war, in false attacks, retreats, blows attempted and avoided, and various other instances of promptitude and address. They could only differ from each other, by conformity with the principles of tactics, adopted among various nations. Xenophon mentions dances among the Thracians, performed without arms, in which some fell down apparently dead, though without injury: were stripped,, were conveyed to their funeral, and their death song was sung by their fellow soldiers.

Peace dances may certainly be referred to the same ideas as predominate in the Island of Rügen. The shoemaker's dance, the weaver's dance, and, especially, the sheep-shearing dance; that being an event in rural œconomy, at the same time interesting, familiar, joyful, and profitable. If shepherd's sheep-shearing be commemorated in a dance, why not harvest-home itself? Why not the festive season of the vintage, as well as that of gathering in the productions of the earth? and, indeed, we know, that Bacchic dances were of extremely antient institution, and generally prevalent. The Goddess Venus also led up the dance,

Jam Cytherea choros ducit Venus imminente Luna,
Junctæque Nymphis gratiæ decentes
Alterno terram quatiunt pede.

Hor. lib. I. Ode 4.

To pursue the consideration of dances consecrated to these deities further, is to solicit the pain which invariably affects a virtuous mind, from beholding the depravity of simplicity and elegance, by the substitution of licentiousness and immorality.

That the seasons of the year were antiently marked by appropriate dances, we may infer, from that called Anthema (flowers); during which a song was sung, "*Where are the roses? Where are the violets? Where is the beauteous parsley?*" And the May-Day dances among ourselves, are certainly relics of a custom extremely antient, and no doubt, extremely popular. When we consider, that part of the religious ceremonies of antiquity consisted in dancings; we may presume, that, these represented events connected with, or derived from, the lives and actions of the deities, when on earth. They were, in our opinion, commemorative dances; though in lapse of ages the incidents they commemorate were forgotten.

Such were the incidents which gave rise to the imitative art of dancing. Graceful movements, complicated figures, expressions of sentiment, were refinements not originally foreseen or attempted; but, when once *mind* has interested itself in a study, however humble or ordinary be its rudiments, there is no saying to what elegance, or to what dignity, it may not attain. Certainly, there are infinite degrees of difference between the attitudes assumed by the imitators of the bears of Kamschatka, and those easy flow of movements,

In gliding state which win their easy way,

that we so much admire in a well-bred dancer. Nevertheless, perhaps, when designing to express *enjoyment*, as experienced by dancers, our author was perfectly right in instancing, "the charms of an English country dance, "of four and twenty couple."

A SUMMARY ACCOUNT OF THE MINES IN RUSSIA.

[From Storch's Picture of Russia.]

The most brilliant epoch in the annals of the Russian mines, is the reign of Catherine II. The improvements in mining, the appointment of able inspectors, and the removal of many abuses and peculations, produced a revenue that excited the astonishment of the world; and will, no doubt, be perpetuated among the most glorious and remarkable occurrences of that period.

Of the two *Gold mines* in the Russian Empire, that of Beresov in the Uralian mountains (near Ekaterinburg), is the most important. About 400,0000 *pouds* * of metal are annually extracted; which yield, on an average, from 40 to 60 *Solotnik* † of fine gold, from every 1000 pouds. The three washing-houses contain 861 washing troughs. The number of workmen attached to the mines amounts to above 2,000; of whom about 1,200 are constantly employed. From the first opening of the mines, in 1754, to 1788, 120 pouds have been produced; reckoned at 1,198,000 roubles; after all expences paid, leaving a surplus of 480,000 roubles.

The most considerable *Silver mines* are those in the Altaic mountains. The principal one is called *Schlangenberg*, one of the richest in the world. Another, lately discovered on the river Ulba, promises to be equally productive. When first worked they contained from five to six *solotnik* of silver (mingled with gold) per *poud*; afterwards, only four; and since 1785, not more than three and a half. There are five smelting-houses. In 1786, 5,400 labourers were employed; and 54,000 peasants to fell wood, the military and chancery servants excepted. The collective produce amounts to 400,000 roubles annually.

From 1745 to 1787, they have yielded 24,460 *pouds* of fine silver; and above 830 pouds of fine gold: which amount to more than thirty millions of roubles. The expences for the whole period did not exceed seven millions; so that the clear gain was 23,000,000 roubles.

The *Nertschinski silver* (or, more properly, *lead* mines containing gold and silver) have been constantly worked since their discovery in 1704; but the profits vary. About two million *pouds* of metal are annually extracted; but the *poud* at present scarcely contains more than one or one-half *solotnik* of silver. There are five smelting-houses. The workmen are about 2,000: the wood-cutters are nearly 13,000.

From 1704 to 1787, these mines yielded 11,644 *pouds* of silver; from which, since 1752, about thirty-two *pouds* of gold have been separated. Both together amount to nearly 10,000,000 of roubles.

According to the above statement, in the period from 1704 to 1788, the gold and silver mines have yielded about 1,000 *pouds* of gold; and above 36,000 *pouds* of silver; estimated at above 45,000,000 of roubles: the expences have not exceeded 15,000,000, consequently the profit is 30,000,000.

The most considerable *Copper mines* lie in the Uralian, Altaic, and Olonezic mountains. The Uralian, which are the richest, had, in 1779, 229 furnaces. These produced, in 1732, above 193,752 *pouds* of copper. In the

* A poud is 40lb.

† 96 solotnick make a poud.

Altaic mountains there is, likewise, a considerable copper mine; besides, the silver ore produces a valuable quantity of copper: about 15,000 *pouds*, annually, upon the whole. In 1782, 18,783 *pouds* of copper were coined there. The produce of the Olonezic mountains, and other scattered mines, cannot be reckoned at more than a few hundreds of *pouds*.

The collective annual revenue, therefore, in copper, amounts to nearly 200,000 *pouds*; the value, reckoning the *poud* at only ten roubles, may be estimated at 2,000,000.

But the *Iron mines*, after the salt-works, constitute the greatest source of wealth to Russia. The richest mines lie in the Uralian mountains; where, in 1779, 70 furnaces, and 532 great hammers, were at work. Taking all the iron founderies in the kingdom collectively, we may reckon, at present, 100 furnaces, and 800 hammers. But, besides the large founderies, there are numerous smiths among the peasants; who smelt the metal at home, and manufacture all kinds of utensils and implements. The most considerable iron-works smelt the metal procured from the mountains; but the peasants use the low-land ores.

In 1782, 3,940,400 *pouds* of wrought iron were manufactured in the Uralian iron-works; and if we reckon a million of *pouds* among the remaining Russian and Siberian governments, it appears that, about five million *pouds* (not including what is used in casting) are annually furnished by the whole kingdom. The value in money, according to the present price, amounts to (at least) 4,500,000 roubles. Most of the ores yield more than 50 per cent. From 7½ to 8 million of *pouds* of raw iron are required to make five million *pouds* of wrought iron; and at least fifteen million *pouds* of ore are necessary to produce that quantity of raw iron.

According to the present arrangement, introduced by the late Empress, all mines belong either to the crown, to public institutions, or to private persons. The cabinet of Petersburgh has the supreme direction. Under it is the Board of Mines, where a major-general presides. Besides two counsellors, and the necessary attendants, the Board is composed of different mine-masters, and surveyors of the smelting-houses. All officers attached to the mines rank with the artillery and engineer corps; and wear a particular uniform.

The Stroganow family, which is among the great proprietors of iron-mines, possesses in the government of Perm alone, 540,000 square versts of land, with 83,453 vassals.

*** *We are promised a succession of interesting articles respecting Russia, and its provinces; selected from Works extremely scarce, if known, in this country.*

A SUCCINCT ACCOUNT OF THE PLATA RIVER.

[From Alcedo's Geographical Dictionary in Spanish.]

The river Paranà rises in the Cordilleras of the Brazils in 15° S. Lat.; receives the Paraguay in 27° S. near Fort Corrientes, and the Uruguay just above Buenos Ayres. These three rivers united constitute the Rio de la Plata, River of Plate, or Silver River.

It was discovered by de Solis, in 1515, who navigated up it as high as an island in 34° 40″ S. Lat. Having seen some huts of Indians on the banks, he imprudently landed with ten men, who were all massacred. Five years after, Sebastian Gaboto, who had left the English service and entered the Spanish, arrived there. He was sent by the Spaniards to discover the streights of Magellan; however, being prevented from performing that service by the opposition of the natives, he entered Rio de la Plata. He navigated it as high as the island discovered by de Solis, and gave it the name of St. Gabriel. Seven leagues higher, he met with the river of St. Salvador, and another thirty leagues distant, called by the natives Sarcana, where he built Fort Gaboto. He continued his voyage as far as the conflux of the Paranà and Paraguay; the latter he entered, and had a conflict with the Indians in which he lost 25 men. But he defeated them at last, and took a great quantity of silver, which they had drawn from Peru. Thinking that this metal abounded in the country, he called the river Rio de la Plata, Silver River; and it soon lost the name of its discoverer

It receives, during its course, many other large bodies of water; so that it rises, overflows, and inundates the country for many leagues; and, like the Nile, fertilizes where it extends. At this period the Indians retire with their families and effects in canoes, in which they live till the waters have subsided. The current at the mouth of this river is so extremely rapid, that the water does not become even brackish for many leagues. The river yields an incredible quantity of fish of various kinds, and the most beautiful birds inhabit its banks. The distance, from the conflux of the Paranà and Paraguay, to the mouth of the Plata is nearly 200 leagues. It abounds with fine islands; and is navigable for the largest ships. The country on each side is quite open and level; but, having neither springs, lakes, nor streams, it is difficult to cross. It furnishes every species of American and European productions; such as corn, cotton, sugar, honey, &c.; but, the most extraordinary circumstance is the propagation of cattle. For, as the plains extend more than 200 leagues, and supply excellent pasturage, the first breed from Spain has mul-

tiplied so immensely, that it is impossible any longer for individuals to ascertain their own; hence all are in common. Those who want milk, take as many cows and calves as they please. Horses are equally numerous. Poultry and game are likewise very abundant; the partridges, which are as large as barn-door fowls, are often killed with sticks. In short, the country only wants salt and wood. The first is imported; the latter is procured from the great plantations of peach-trees, which thrive uncommonly well.

The mouth of the river is about 40 leagues broad; from Cape St. Antonio to that of St. Maria del Este. Though the whole river is navigable, yet it contains many shallows and rocks, which are often fatal to vessels when the wind is from the W. Gales are more frequent there than at sea. It flows by the cities of Buenos-Ayres, by the colony of Sacramento, which formerly belonged to Portugal, and by Monte-Video. Its mouth lies in 35° 30″ S. Lat.

Monte-Video was founded on the banks of the Plata, 20 leagues from its mouth, by order of Marshal Bruno de Zavala. It is small, has only one parish, and a convent of Franciscans. It stands on a hill commanding a large and commodious bay, which is frequented by ships going to Buenos-Ayres. The citadel is badly constructed with four bastions and some batteries. The governor resides in it. The town is surrounded with a strong wall, on which are some pieces of artillery. The population is about 1000 souls, comprising many opulent and distinguished families. The climate is excellent; and the soil very fertile. Fish is so cheap, that it scarcely bears any price. The principal trade consists in hides. It lies 35 leagues from Buenos-Ayres.

A few further particulars relating to Buenos-Ayres. From the same work.

Among the most remarkable animals are tigers of a larger species than any where else; also ant-eaters; and the chinchilla, a kind of squirrel, in shape like a lap-dog. Its fur is of a bright grey colour, and finer than the most delicate silk. The trade is carried on with the provinces of Peru by means of carts drawn by oxen. They travel together in caravans, for fear of the Indians.

The capital of Buenos-Ayres is called Trinidad. It was founded by Don P. de Mendoza. In 1535, it was twice abandoned on account of irruptions of the Indians; and no provision-ships arriving, the inhabitants were reduced to feed on human flesh. In 1581, it was again colonized by order of Philip II. The situation is delightful. Owing to the width of the river, the opposite coast cannot be seen. The country is open, constantly verdant, and covered with villas and country seats. Winter is the rainy season, when tremendous storms of thunder and lightning take place. The heat, in summer, is tempered by the breezes which spring up about noon.

It is the capital of the Bishopric. The buildings, though of brick, may stand in competition with the best in Europe. The cathedral is a handsome structure. The city is divided into four parishes; containing five convents, two monasteries, a foundling hospital, a house for orphans, a college, and a beautiful square. The citadel adjoins the river; here the governor resides. The garrison *did* consist of 24 companies (of 50 men each) of militia cavalry; 9 of infantry; 1 of artillery, with a large park of artillery. The streets intersect each other at right angles; but when the river swells, they are impassable for carts; foot-paths are raised for the convenience of the inhabitants. They use the peach-tree for fuel to heat their ovens, and to cook with, as wood can only be procured from a distance of 2 or 300 leagues. The population is about 30,000 souls. Trinidad is 70 leagues from the mouth of the Plata, in 319° 10′ Long. 34° 35′ Lat. from Ferro.

ACCOUNT OF THE FRENCH COLONY OF SENEGAL, BY CITIZEN PELLETAN.

The French are the only European nation which possesses settlements between *Cape Blanc* and the river Gambia; from 21° to 8° N. lat. They would have monopolized the whole trade of the coast, if the peace of Versailles had not allowed England (as an equivalent for the useless demolition of Fort James, on the River Gambia), a share in the gum-trade. Sierra Leone might have become very important, if properly supported by Government; for the river is not obstructed by a bar like the Senegal, nor by dangerous sand-banks like the Gambia. Large vessels could, at at any time, easily procure wood and water, which are scarce on other parts of this coast; and the soil is rich and fertile.

Geographical Description.

Fort d'Arguin, in 21° N. lat. is now abandoned; as a sand-bank, of that name, renders the navigation very dangerous.

Road of *Portendick*, in 18½° N. lat. The Fort, at present abandoned, was built to prevent the smuggling of Senegal gum. The author is of opinion that a small squadron, stationed between Cape Blanc and Cape Verd, would answer the purpose much better.

Mouth of the Senegal, in 16° N. lat. Between three and four leagues from the mouth is a small sandy island, surrounded by the two arms of that river; it is the capital of the colony, and was formerly called St. Louis; the author calls it the *Island of Se-*

negal. The population amounts to between 6 and 7,000 souls; blacks and mulattoes, freemen and slaves. The length of the island is about three quarters of a league; its breadth is from 120 to 250 toises. As the inhabitants possess no territory on the Continent, they live entirely by trade. The fort is in bad condition, and contains but few guns. On the sea-side are three batteries of heavy metal; but the bar is its chief protection, for large vessels cannot pass it. Formerly, there were gun-boats. The garrison consists of 243 men, called the "African Bataillon;" thirty men were detached to the Island of Gorée, and four or five to the Island of Gambia, in the Sierra Leone river. A seventh part of the garrison dies annually. The governor is also head of the civil department; an institution very injurious to the welfare of the colony.

Fort *Podor*, about 60 leagues distant from the Island of Senegal, on the Elephant-tooth Island (*Isle au Morphil*): it protects a village containing 2,000 negroes, but the situation is not favourable; the trade, on that account, was so trifling, that it has lately been abandoned.

Fort *St. Joseph*, in the *Galam* country, lies nearly 150 leagues above *Podor*, on the Senegal river, and three days journey from the gold mines, in the county of *Bambuk*. This fort was established to protect a market, held annually in October or November, according to the rise of the Senegal. For, like the Nile, and most of the African rivers, the Senegal has its periodical rise. It begins to fill from June to November, and then decreases till the month of May. In August, September, and October, the waters are at their height; there is likewise the rainy and sickly season. At low water the river is navigable for ships of 100 to 200 tons, to the distance of only about twelve leagues above *Podor*. When full, one may go up as far as *Galam*. In July, travellers leave Senegal. Durand, the author's predecessor, went by land to *Galam*, in July, 1786; and performed his journey in 22 days.

The fort barters gold for European goods, (particularly, salt and brandy), and millet, for the consumption of the inhabitants of Senegal. The great distance, and the mortality, have obliged the French to quit that settlement. The author reckons the annual revenue of the gold mines, at 75,000 crowns; of which 10,000 went to Senegal. Since the limitation of the slave-trade, this settlement has suffered great disadvantages. The annual exportation of gum from Senegal, amounts to nearly 1,200,000 lbs.; the English buy from 6 to 700,000 lbs. every year. Formerly 1,200 slaves, and between 20 and 25,000 lbs. of ivory were annually sold. The imports were: common linens and muslins; small iron and glass wares; coarse gunpowder, fire-arms, a little common scarlet cloth, brandy, molasses, sugar, and some naval stores for the coasting vessels.

The island of *Gorée* in 15° N. lat. A small barren rock, about a league from the main below Cape Verd, with some very weak fortifications; 2,000 inhabitants, blacks and mulatoes; partly freemen and partly slaves; who live solely by the slave-trade. Gorée produces nothing; not even water and wood; but there is a very secure anchoring ground and a small natural bason where ships may be repaired—the only one on the coast from *Mogador* to the *Gold-coast*, where, above all, a large bar impedes the landing, even of boats. The inhabitants carry on an exclusive coasting-trade as far as the river Gambia, in slaves, oxen, and millet.

The *Gambia*. Some miserable mud-hovels, without means of defence even against the natives; a resident, who has a salary of 300 crowns, and three or four black sailors: these constitute the whole of the French settlement here. The sailors are too ignorant to pilot vesesls in the dangerous mouth of the Gambia. From 2 to 3,000 slaves are annually exported; a small quantity of gold, and double the quantity of ivory, which is received from Senegal; log-wood, and wood for cabinet makers, and a great deal of very impure wax. Five-sixths of these exports are taken by the English. The imports are much the same with those of Senegal, and Gorée; however, we must add, the coarse cottons of Rouen and Nantes, coral manufactured at Marseilles, and wrought amber from Holland.

The river *Casamanca* belongs to the Portuguese. The banks must be very fertile; for, in seasons of scarcity, great quantities of good rice are exported from thence.

The cluster of islands, called *Bisagos* in 11° N. lat., are exclusively frequented by the Portuguese. The French government had them investigated in 1788.

Loss islands. About thirteen years ago, a sailor from Havre de Grace settled there, and was of great service to French vessels in procuring them provisions. Some Englishmen have also settled in the islands, on account of the slave-trade.

It is a very ancient custom in Africa, to treat prisoners of war as slaves. The author even asserts, that Europeans found the slave-trade in full force in Africa, and that, therefore, they did not establish it. The negroes of Senegal lead a most active and laborious life; the black sailors, or *Laptots*, for example, perform laborious services which no white man could stand. But the negroes on the main are very indolent and careless; their husbandry is at a very low ebb, and their mechanics worse. This difference is the more striking, because, Senegal is re-

cruited from the inhabitants of the continent. In Senegal they shew great activity and industry; but as soon as they return to their native country they abandon themselves to apathy and indolence. The cause proceeds from the uncertainty of all kinds of property; from a wandering life, prompted on all sides by insidiousness; from constant wars and plundering; causes which have greatly increased and strengthened that melancholy traffic. A *general abolition of the slave-trade* would restore civilization and happiness among these people, and a flourishing agriculture would supply the French ships with rich and unexceptionable cargoes. The author, here, has not overlooked the dangers of a sudden emancipation of the *house-slaves* in Senegal: he proposes the same method that is said to have succeeded very well in North America, namely, to liberate slaves after a certain period of servitude; and, at the same time, to allow of hiring negroes from the interior, for a stated term of years. The author has treated very diffusely of the future culture of the country with regard to its different parts, and the various qualities of the inhabitants.

SKETCH OF THE LIFE OF PROFESSOR CAMPER.

[Partly abstracted from his "Eloge," by M. Vicq-D'Azyr, delivered to the Académie Française. Inserted in the Œuvres de Vicq-D'Azyr. Vol. i. p. 305.]

This learned anatomist was born at Leyden, May 11, 1722. He was son of the Rev. Florent Camper, and of Catherine Ketting, born at Surat, but of Dutch parentage. His grandfather was a physician at Leyden, where his family had long filled the most honourable posts of the magistracy. The father of our professor was a man of learning, and intimate with those learned men Boërrhaave, s'Gravesande, Musschenbroek, the Chevalier Moor, and others. Among these was our young student brought up. He was of a vigorous constitution. He early studied the arts of design and painting, which afterwards proved extremely useful to him, and enabled him to convey his ideas of form, &c. with precision, by his own hand. Laborde, a famous mathematician, taught him geometry. He was instructed in his art by Gaubius, Van Rooyen, and Albinus. His inaugural dissertations, when admitted M.D. were commended by Baldinger, and collected by Haller. In the first he appears as a partizan of Smith on Vision: in the second he describes the *canal godronné* of Petit, in the eyes of animals: in both, he manifests his union of anatomical knowledge with that of general nature, and of the fine arts.

M. Camper having lost his parents, determined, in 1748, to travel; and visited England; where his talents were admired by Mead, Parsons, Pitcairn, Pringle, and Mortimer. William Hunter assisted his anatomical researches; Smellie taught him midwifery, Sharp surgery, Elliot botany. Here also he learned inoculation. He studied electricity with Watson, magnetism with Knight, the microscope with Baker, and astronomy with Short. At Oxford he heard Bradley on the central forces: at Cambridge he visited the famous optician Smith, and Walker, of Trinity, who was visited by all strangers, partly because he lived in the house which Newton had occupied. At Paris Camper found Winslow, the chief of anatomists; among physicians, Astruc, Ferrin, Sanchez, and others; among surgeons, Le-Dran, Petit, and Quesnay: among naturalists, Reaumur and Buffon; among botanists, Bernard de Jussieu, and many more *Savans*. At Louvain, he examined the anatomical cabinet of Bils: at Hamburgh, that of Kerkringius: he inspected, in the Sound, the famous Tower of Tycho Brahé. At Hanover, he became acquainted with Dr. Zimmerman; at Gottingen, with Michaelis, Heyne, Forster, Gmelin, Wrisberg, and Blumenbach. At Cassel, he saw Mr. Sœmmering's cabinet of preparations: and at Berlin, he was well received by its numerous literati. M. Camper travelled often, and short journies at a time; because he desired to examine and reflect. Sometimes his children travelled with him; when they kept a journal in common, in which they all inserted their observations, whether on truths or errors, on projects or systems. He was acquainted with authors as well as with their works: was a stranger at no academy, nor was any academy a stranger to him: he took his place at London, at Paris, or at Berlin.

There are two sources of instruction in science: reading and observation. Books contain facts and reasonings; but the reader is never sure of what others have seen: often, only the results are committed to writing—never the train of circumstances which characterize a subject. No wonder, then, that a reader forms his opinions with hesitation, and is greatly subject to incertitude. But, the man who has drawn his knowledge from observation, speaks decidedly from his own opinion, which he can explain in more than one way, and can illustrate by more than one comparison: such was M. Camper.

As all exanthematic diseases are capable of being inoculated, M. Camper established in Frizeland a society wholly occupied in inoculating cattle with epizootic diseases, intending to diminish their virulence. This patriotic attempt was long without success. At length, a countryman, named Reinders, directed his attention to the fact, that calves, born of mothers which had recovered from

the disorder, received the inoculation, and went through the various stages of the malady without much hazard. M. Camper took the hint, and directed his talents accordingly, till he at length discovered, in 1777, a method which proved a public benefit: so that, whereas formerly two-thirds of the cattle infected were lost, now the loss became but three in a hundred.

M. Camper successively occupied the chairs of philosophy, anatomy, surgery, and physic, in the Universities of Franeker, Amsterdam, and Groninguen.

It is customary in Holland, and in Germany, that Professors deliver a discourse at commencing their office. In one of these discourses, M. Camper examined the certainty of the art of physic; in another, the ideas formed on the subject of beauty; in a third, the advantage of anatomical knowledge in the sciences, whether moral or natural; in a fourth, he discussed the analogy between plants and animals. He also paid particular attention to the conformation of birds; and published his remarks on the presence of air in the interior cavities of their bones.

The lungs of birds adhere to the ribs, the motions of which must, for this reason, be compensated by those of the sternum; vesicles, full of air, formed of muscular membranes, are extended in the belly, along the bones of that part; orifices situated toward the head of the larger bones, which are not furnished with marrow, preserve a free communication between these and the lungs; and the air with which the system of bones is filled *streams* also under the skin, whence it passes into the quills, that are clothed with feathers! To what other wonders anatomists had discovered in the structure of birds, M. Camper hereby added that of the astonishing permeability of their organs; by which the whole body becomes a kind of living balloon, capable of expansion or contraction, at pleasure, directed by its own powers, every part whereof contains within itself an etherial fluid by which it is distended, and a force by which it is impelled. A wonderful masterpiece of buoyancy, mobility, suppleness! Man hardly comprehends its mechanism; and, in spite of his most daring experiments, it baffles the most skilful imitations devised by his ingenuity. Under other considerations, M. Camper described the changes produced by domesticity in the structure of birds. In this state, they increase in size and weight: the extremities of their bones become rounded; the orifices destined to maintain the passage of air close, and, overcome by its dimensions, the bird, in servitude, loses all power of regaining its freedom.

Apes have, in the anterior part of the larynx, a pouch, whether bony or membraneous, which opens under the epiglottis. M. Camper, who discovered this hollow in the Orân-Otan, observed, that instead of being single, as in the apes, it was double in this creature; and that it communicated with the larynx by two apertures. He proved that no other species known had this conformation; and reading afterwards Galen's description of the ape used by the ancients in their anatomical demonstrations, he recognized that subject in the oran-otan; Galen noticing expressly these bags, and these apertures. M. Camper also discovered in the rein-deer a membraneous bag, placed under the skin of the neck, and opening into the larynx; but the intention of these bags, in animals so different, is unknown.

It was long doubted whether fishes possessed the sense of hearing. The experiments of Rondeletius, of the Abbé Nollet, and many others, proving the fact, the question still remained to ascertain where the organ was seated. M. Camper examined this organ in several classes of fish.

In cartilaginous fishes three semi-circular bony passages enclose three others of the same shape, but of a cartilaginous substance. Between these passages is a sort of purse, the matter of which is elastic; in this are contained two white bodies, of a chalky consistence; and over these the nervous pulp is spread, for the reception of that impulse which produces the idea of sound.

In spinous fishes, the little bones which the elastic purse contains are three in number: a muscular apparatus stretches this purse, at pleasure; and none of the three semi-circular passages has any protecting covering. An exterior aperture, known to Du Verney, and described by Monro, permits a free passage to the sonorous undulations. But this organ possesses neither auditory canal, nor *membrana tympani* (the drum of the ear), the existence of these parts being restricted to animals which live in the air; nor do we find the *cochlea* (or spiral), which is peculiar to man, and to animals. Reduced to its most simple construction, the organ of hearing consists in a few small bones surrounded by nerve.

That class of creatures which are themselves nothing but pulp, as it were, cannot receive impressions from sound, since they have no solid part wherein the sonorous vibration may impinge, and be regulated. The flesh of these, in proportion as the number of organs is diminished, becomes more flexible, more gelatinous, more palpitating; and this excess of mobility, no doubt, compensates in them the diminution of sensibility. In this excellent discourse on the organ of hearing in fishes, intent on determining with accuracy the origin of the nerves, M. Camper has described the brain; in which he includes the

lobes. M. Vicq-D'Azyr thinks, on the contrary, that in all animals, the mass of brain, deprived of lobes, is reduced to the tubercles of the centre, whence the nerves issue.

M. Camper also described the anatomy of a young elephant, that of the head of a double-horned rhinoceros from Africa, that of a didelphus from Asia, which differs considerably from that of America, that of the dromedary, that of the Cape ant-eater, that of the crocodile of the Ganges, and some parts of a whale. He also collected a great number of fossil bones; and, by his study of comparative anatomy, he was convinced that there really have existed various animals, no longer met with, such as that enormous quadruped whose remains are found on the banks of the Ohio; as well as others allied to species still existing, but of vastly enlarged proportions; *e. gr.* the elk with greatly divided horns.

M. Camper was not satisfied with studying the human frame as an anatomist, and comparing it with the conformations of animals, he directed his knowledge to assist the arts of design, and composed a course of anatomy suited to painters; to whom he taught this science during many years, in the amphitheatre of the School for Painting at Amsterdam. He procured, from the shores of Asia and Africa, the skulls of Negroes; and, in measuring the facial line of these, he supposed it to be more inclining among the blacks than among the whites. In tracing this line still further, and giving it different degrees of obliquity, he exhibited at pleasure a human countenance, a quadruped's head, or a bird's bill. See this principle illustrated in our review of Mr. Bell's Anatomy of Surgery.

To select among the observations furnished by anatomy, those which may best illustrate the nature of diseases, is an extremely useful occupation. M. Camper executed a plan of this nature, in a large and handsome work, as to the arm and the pelvis. The parts are described according to the order in which they present themselves, from the exterior to the interior. The plates, which the author himself delineated, greatly facilitate our understanding of his text. We especially observe in this work, a truly original description of the nerves of the arm, those of the articulation of the arm with the shoulder-blade; those of the ligaments of the vertebræ, and of the arteries of the pelvis. Two important remarks present themselves; the first is, the more considerable curvature of the urethra in children than in adults—a circumstance which demands that the probe receive the same degree of curvature: the second is, the position of the sub-clavian artery between the clavicula and the coracoid apophysis; at which part, when the shoulder-blade is carefully drawn backwards, the artery may be so effectually compressed with the finger as immediately to suspend pulsation to the extremity of the member. Surgery has taken advantage of these observations.

M. Camper suffered himself to be diverted from the completion of this great work by writing for the prizes proposed by several academies. He gained that proposed by the Academy of Haerlem, by an essay on the treatment of infants: to this he added another, on the organ of hearing in the whale; and a third, on the causes of hernia in new-born infants. Other prizes he received from the Academy of Dijon, for his researches on specific medicines;—from that of Toulouse, for his treatise on inoculation;—from that of Lyons, for a discourse on diseases of the breast;—from that of Surgery at Paris, for his thoughts on the influence of air, sleep, watching, and the different excretions, in the treatment of surgical diseases. By another memoir, he contributed to banish plaisters in the cure of ulcers; in which he recommended the use of vegetable astringents. He also published, in the volumes of this institution, remarks on Smellie's forceps, and on Rookhuysen's lever; also on a bandage for restraining hernia. Edinburgh published his memoir on the formation of callus after fractures. Moreover, he collected his observations on the divers kinds of serous effusions; and pointed out a new method of penetrating into the articulations, whether those of the knee, or those of the cotyloidal cavity, when filled with serum: this collection received the prize proposed by the Royal Society of Medicine at Paris, on the subject of the nature and treatment of dropsy.

At the same time he enriched the works of Buffon, Pallas, and Monro, with his discoveries in natural history and anatomy. He performed the section of the pubis on the females of quadrupeds. He recommended the operation of cutting for the stone at twice. He published observations on the *ozenæ* of horses, and on the origin of the *animalculæ* which inhabit the liver of sheep. He reported to the Society of Agriculture at Groningen his experiments on the cultivation of meadows. He was associated with every learned body; and was the first after Boerhaave which the French Royal Society of Sciences inserted on the cautious list of its foreign associates.

Two of his dissertations, in particular, ought to be noticed. In the first, the author enquires, why man is subject to a greater number of diseases than animals? Is this a matter of enquiry by those who live among men? Animals remain faithful to the dictates of nature: men, on the contrary, counteract her laws. They confound days, times, seasons, and climates. In this confusion all is constraint; in this disorder all is excess: every where we see labour

without repose, or repose without labour: hunger denies itself to opulence, but attaches itself to distress: on all sides, pleasure issues in grief; error is combined with truth; and vice is the torment of virtue. From these tedious languors arise diseases without number, and most commonly without remedy. Imagination produces them, interminglies them artfully, augments them; but never palliates them, never cures them. Under the various names which physic devises, vexations, remorse, excess, unhappiness, in short, cuts off the most interesting portion of afflicted humanity.* By what means shall we oppose such perversions? We reply, with M. Camper, by the exercise of individual reason, in personal advice and remonstrance; by that of public reason, in wise, humane, paternal and wholesome laws; by mutual interchange of good offices, of power, fortune, and sympathetic attention.

The second memoir, at first sight, appears to be a joke; indeed it originated from a free conversation: but it is a proof what interest slight incidents derive when treated by a mind replete with valuable observations, and accustomed to an advantageous distribution of them. M. Camper wrote on shoes and boots: and we think so well of his hints, that we propose, at some future period, to introduce them.

These labours, though numerous, did not prevent M. Camper from attending with diligence to public business. He was deputed by two bailliages to the States of Frizeland; in which he long continued. In 1783, he was elected member of the regency of Gorcum; in 1786, he was called into the council of state. Placed by this incident amidst the factions which divided Holland, surrounded by the ruins of his country, accused of not having exerted himself sufficiently to effect its independence, these distinctions, these honours, became the source of endless vexations; his health sunk under them, and he fell a sacrifice to chagrin. He died April 7, 1789.

Such was the termination of a useful and important life! An instance of what may be effected by diligence, activity, and zeal for the diffusion of knowledge: an instance of the desire of renown gratified in the way of a liberal profession, valued at home, admired abroad; such was Professor Camper. May he not also be regarded as an instance, that the steady secluded virtues are little calculated for the boisterous offices of public life; that the violence of faction, or the torrent of political enmity, may overpower minds of the greatest endowments, and deprive a perturbed state of its most useful and valuable citizens?

* These are Vicq-D'Azyr's own words; for an account of his own death, as connected with Cazotte's Prophecy, Panorama, p. 995, *et seq.*

M. Camper was buried at Leyden, with his family. He left a valuable collection of skeletons, fossil bones, and anatomical preparations of every description. His MSS. and his drawings are, perhaps, still more valuable.

INDIAN PRODUCTIONS, THE ACQUISITION OF WHICH IS DESIRABLE. [Translated from the French. Vide Panorama, p. 791.]

ANIMALS.

In pointing out the animals of Hindoostan, and the neighbouring countries, which deserve to be naturalized among us, I shall mention first, the species of *Fowls* of Chatigaon; a breed of the greatest beauty. They weigh nearly as much as the largest Turkies; and their flesh, which is soft and tender, is infinitely more relishing and delicate than that of the Turkey.

II.—The *Camel* of India has one hump: this useful animal, for more than one reason, ought to be transferred to the islands, where he would be of the greatest utility in carrying burdens, particularly in the interior parts, impracticable to wheel carriages.

III.—The larger species of *Buffalo*, which, in Tuscany, renders important services to agriculture and the plough, deserves to be introduced into France; where this species would be equally useful for the same purposes. It is well known, that the Buffalo is indefatigable; and that although slow in his motions, he, nevertheless, exceeds oxen, I might say horses, too, in labour.

IV.—The *Sheep* of Cashmire, which may be boldly described as the most useful species, no less then the most beautiful, considering the quality of its flesh, which is tender and exquisite; the beauty, fineness, and silkiness, of its fleece, and especially the length of its wool. I have seen some of this wool, and have even brought over specimens, twenty two inches in length.

V.—The *Musk Deer* of Boutan, and Great Tibet, which it would be possible to naturalize in our Colonies, as also in Europe. Musk is a valuable ingredient in perfumes; but more so, in medicine.

VI.—The *Sheep* of the same countries, which is a beast of carriage; it bears as much as seventy-five pounds; it ascends and climbs, with this load, the highest, and most craggy mountains of that uneven country.

VII.—The Gazelle, called in the language of the Chingonlas, a people of Candy in the isle of Ceylon, *Nataniman*, literally, *little four-eyed Stag*. This pretty quadruped, mild in nature, and familiar with man, is a little being which Nature seems to have taken a delight to create in miniature, and to delineate with a most astonishing delicacy of proportion. Its legs are about the size of a quill, its body thin and slender; the carriage of its head announces gentleness combined

with some degree of spirit. Its eyes lively, large, and brilliant, are surrounded by two eye-lids, the eye-lashes of which are very long. Parts similar to these have been found in all animals; but Nature seems to have sported, or to have been uncommonly bountiful, in bestowing, or rather in tracing, beneath the eyes of this charming little creature, two marks perfectly resembling two other eye-lids, and furnished with eye-lashes as completely as the real eye-lids which cover the eyes. This quadruped, a fondled child of Nature, is not disgraced, or cast out by her. It is found in the forests of Ceylon, with other wild animals. We might say, that its lot is cast with the utmost attention to its enjoyments, amid the solitary gardens of Nature; for there he need not dread the fatal jaws of voracious animals. The four-eyed Gazelle, to use the Hindoostannee name, is extremely lively: it scarcely walks, it bounds along, and quickly secures itself from danger in its *fort*, for so we may call its retreat. This pretty little animal feeds on the tenderest herbs and flowers. It is passionately fond of honey, and of milk. To the fair sex, nothing could be presented so lovely as this miniature, formed by Nature's own hands, and whose whole character is mildness itself.

VIII.—In speaking of the desirable subjects of the animal kingdoms, it might be expected that I should specify all which I have had opportunities of seeing, but which are not generally known: among these I shall mention the little *Dwarf Elephant*, and *Siaygush*. If the four-eyed Gazelle is an animal in miniature, the Dwarf Elephant might pass for an abortion; not that he has any characteristic marks of deformity, but, because from his appearance we might be induced to adopt this opinion of him. This elephant, diminutive in size, and so very far from reaching the dimensions of the other kinds, appears also to have less intelligence than they. In this he strikingly differs from the four-eyed Gazelle, which is incomparably more lively, more active, more intelligent, more familiar and fond, than the larger species of his class: whereas the small bulk of this Elephant, his awkward motions and appearance, inspire no other sentiment than that derived from beholding a feeble being—a dwarf.

IX.—*Siaygush*, which signifies in Hindoostannee "black ear," is an animal peculiar to Hindoostan. If I were to class him, I should place him among the foxes. His height is ordinarily fourteen to sixteen inches: his coat is silky, and like that of the long-haired Zibelin Martin: his muscles and his motions shew strength: his large, lively, and sparkling eyes, denote cunning and craft. An enemy, even to antipathy, to tigers, wolves, and other wild beasts, he seeks them, attacks them, and fiercely pursues them every where. The battle which he commences is curious to the last degree. Nothing can deter him, nor restrain him from attacking his enemy, however large, or vigorous. Gentle towards man and peaceful animals, he is furious and violent against wolves and tigers.

Hyder Ali Khan, the famous Nabob of Mysore, was extremely fond of beholding the combats of tigers; such sport was in character for such a warrior! These he varied; sometimes a man, sometimes an elephant, sometimes a bear, was the antagonist of the terrible and savage inhabitant of the forests of Hindoostan.

These combats were exhibited on the square in front of the palace of this prince, at Seringapatam, his chief residence. Around this area was stretched very strong and very high net work. In the centre of this enclosure was constructed a scaffolding and under it were placed the cages in which the tigers were confined: the doors of these cages might be opened from above at pleasure. When the tiger had issued from his cage, he was left at liberty for a short time, and suffered to prowl about the arena, in order that he might regain that courage and activity which his confinement had diminished. When somewhat tired with walking he stopped to recover breath, that moment his opponent was let loose into the inclosure, on the opposite side to that where he stood.

The sight of his enemy, of whatever kind, quickly engaged the tiger's notice. The Siaygush, supple, agile, and screaming with a sharp and piercing cry, hastily provoked the attack of the tremendous savage. At the same instant, the tiger, growling, and raging, approached towards him by prodigious leaps. The Siaygush excited him still more by its motions, and its redoubled screams, and prepared to maintain the battle without change of place. When the tiger had come within reach, suddenly the Siaygush crouched down close to the ground, in such a manner, that the tiger intending to fall upon it, infallibly over-leaped his mark. The Siaygush nimbly springing up, threw himself head over heels, and seized with his two fore paws the tiger's tail; which the tiger raising, assisted the agile Siaygush in climbing on to his back. Arrived thus far, and fixing himself tightly by his long, strong, and sharp claws, he with his teeth bit, tore, and mangled, the nape of the neck of the tiger; which beast, attacked in his most tender part, and incapable of defending himself with his talons, was forced to roll himself on the ground, in order to get rid of his foe. Directly as the little Siaygush found himself obliged to quit his hold, he darted away, in two or three springs escaped to a distance, and was ready to sustain a fresh attack, which soon took place.

The Siaygush repeated the same means of conquest, and after the fourth or fifth encounter, triumphed over his monstrous adversary, now dead, or dying, on the field of battle: while the victor had received only a few slight bruises, by the struggles of the tiger, when rolling on the earth. This combat shews clearly the manners of this animal, and, no doubt, but in countries where wolves abound, he might be extremely useful. I shall only remark, further, that although the Siaygush attacks all savage animals, yet he himself lives on fruits.

X.—There are in India *Bulls* of a very small species: the Cows of which give plentifully an excellent milk: their keep is not expensive: they eat indifferently of grasses, straw, or dried leaves, and their flesh is excellent. These would be an important acquisition to the colonies.

XI.—The *Bulls of Berar* are the most beautiful, and the largest kind in the world. They might be obtained from Surat. These bulls, which the Indians call elephants, on account of their magnitude, are in height at least five feet four, or six inches. They are equally swift and powerful; and would become extremely useful, whether for drawing the plough, or artillery. The Indians employ them in this last department. They would soon be preferable, in many respects, for this kind of service, to the best horses.

XII.—From the tribes of fishes, an ample collection might be made. I shall mention only one kind, the *Katela* which is very large. Some of them weigh more than forty pounds. They live in the ponds and streams of Bengal; and their flesh is firm and excellent.

Other articles of a miscellaneous nature will be given in continuation of this author's communications.

PROPOSITA PHILANTHROPICA.

———Homo sum,
Humani nihil a me alienum puto.

SOCIETY FOR RELIEVING THE DISTRESSED INHABITANTS OF GERMANY, AND OTHER PARTS OF THE CONTINENT.

When the French had reduced Ulm and its neighbourhood to inexpressible distress, previous to the capture of General Mack's army, some German correspondents of a worthy minister to a foreign congregation resident among us, wrote to him, mentioning their calamitous situation: these letters he communicated to about six gentlemen in the city, who, to their infinite honour, by return of post (it being post night, that on which they met), remitted £300, as an *instant* assistance. They, of course, called on their friends, and the public, for further donations; and we have the pleasure of reporting, that the sums received are about £23,000, of which above £20,000 has been remitted to the sufferers, in a manner so effectually to answer the purpose, that *not one shilling* has fallen into the hands of the French.

We regard such exertions with pleasure: because, they are trophies of humanity, more honourable and more durable than trophies of victory: because, they *distinguish* Britain: other countries have achieved conquests; but has any sent £20,000 unsolicited, by the exertions of a few citizens only, not as a national act, but of private bounty, as a sympathising tribute to suffering fellow-christians? It was enough that they were suffering—we relieved them: neither were they our fellow-subjects, nor allied by ties of blood; they were not our political associates; they were men and christians; this was their only recommendation; and this alone was sufficient to touch British hearts, and to exercise British compassion.

We have two inferences to draw:—the first is, that the distribution of unexpected bounty cannot fail of giving a tone to the sentiments and the wishes of those who have received it. Can they *hate* Britain who have been cherished by her care?—the question is a libel on human nature. Can they do otherwise than pray for her prosperity, and wish her well? Secondly, in the extracts we now present, describing the sufferings of those parts, behold, Briton, the lot of thine own family and thy dearest connections, should the ravagers of those territories, ravage thy native land. The picture is extremely affecting—erase the name of "Germany," and write under it "Britain:"—who would not rather die? God forbid, that this should ever be verified by us; that we should experience how cruel are the tender mercies of the wicked!

It was our intention to have stated historically the progress of this benevolence, but our limits, and other circumstances, restrict us to extracts from the last printed Report of the Committee in July 1806. When the final report is made, we may again advert to the subject.

Among the subscribers His R. H. the Prince of Wales is £500, His R. H. the Duke of Cambridge £200.

Extract of a Letter from Professor Jung, of Heidelberg, Counsellor to the Elector of Baden, to the Rev. Mr. Steinkopff.—"I requested certain individuals to point out some of the most deserving objects of relief in their city (Augsbourg). This they did with great fidelity and judgment; I sent them 600 florins (about £60). Among those who were thus relieved, was the widow of a celebrated artist, Baron de Reichle. At his death she was left destitute: and to such poverty had the oppressive quarterings of the soldiers reduced her, that she was obliged to part with her last golden piece, which had been laid by on account of its having been given as a present to her child at its baptism. I have been myself eye-witness (says one of my correspondents) to many honest poor people, *pawning their coats and petticoats in order to satisfy the demands of the soldiers, who had been quartered upon them, or had intruded themselves.*"——"My worthy friend, the Baron de Gorchausen, has safely received, and already distributed, the 108 florins which I had sent him. Of one of the persons whom he relieved, he gives the following description:—"She is a tender, careful mother of four "small children, one of whom is an infant, "and another is in an ill state of health. "One I have taken into my house, and entirely provided for. I put six dollars into "her hand—she looked at me with astonishment.—'It is not my gift,' I said, 'but "comes from a great distance.'—Her heart "was so full, that for some time she was deprived of utterance.—At length, lifting up "her eyes, and pressing her infant to her "bosom, she exclaimed, 'Thanks be to "God, and to you:—now I can purchase a "goat, and then my poor children will at "least have milk.'—Tears of gratitude bedewed her cheeks. The sum bestowed "was just what she wanted."——"The *misery of Heidelberg surpasses all conception.* I cannot copy you the letters and documents, but shall at the conclusion *send you the whole in the originals.* The large bodies of troops have consumed every thing, and the many thousands of Russian and Austrian prisoners of war, have spread a dreadful contagious disease in the country, whereby parents are snatched away from their children, and children from their parents. To read the description of these distresses is enough to break one's heart."

Extract from the General Report of the Hanoverian Committee, addressed to the Committee in London.—"The Electorate of Hanover is, in itself, a *poor country*, having but few resources, and not producing a sufficiency of corn *for the subsistence of its inhabitants.* Under the influence of a wise and mild government, however, by increased industry and improved agriculture, as well as by the favourable concurrence of political circumstances, this country, *before the late unhappy changes*, was risen to a degree of prosperity, which enabled the inhabitants to bear the heavy burdens imposed on them in consequence of the seven years' war, and afterwards aggravated by the contributions towards maintaining the armed neutrality, formed for the protection of the North of Germany, and by the expences for supplying a large Prussian army, then occupying the country for the first time.

"When the French army first invaded the country, as well as when the enemy were preparing an expedition against Lauenburgh, they seized upon every thing they wanted, in order to complete such preparations; so that the whole country, and particularly those provinces where the enemy was then assembled, suffered all those devastations and calamities to which the peaceable inhabitants of the seat of actual warfare are exposed.

"Immediately after the convention of Subingen was concluded, the country was forced to pay a contribution of *two millions and five hundred thousand francs*, which sum *at once came out of circulation.* The great number of French generals, commissaries, and commanders of regiments, for whose tables we had to provide, occasioned such enormous expences, that we were afterwards very greatly indebted to Marshal Bernadotte, when he ordered that the expences for the table of a general officer should not exceed *three thousand dollars a month*; and when he regulated the expenditure for the tables of the commissaries and commanders in proportion."

Yet these oppressions formed only a small part of the extortions inflicted upon the unhappy Hanoverians. The report states the French army to have been destitute of every necessary, which the inhabitants were compelled to supply: new corps, both of cavalry and infantry, were also raised and completely equipped at their cost; and, what aggravated these united miseries, was, that these rapacious armies were accompanied by great numbers of *mechanics and workmen*, who made every article for them; so that the *Hanoverians were deprived of the scanty profit which they might thence have derived.* Scarcely were the demands of one destitute army supplied, when they were followed by others, which were furnished in a similar manner; while successive requisitions, each more burthensome than the former, were levied upon the inhabitants. And, though they became less oppressive during the time Marshal Bernadotte had the command, yet the punctuality with which payment was exacted, soon exhausted the property of individuals; so that no resource remained, but to raise the sums demanded by loans on the *credit of the country.* But this credit at length failed: for, in

consequence of the continual demands, the interest could not be regularly paid; and yet the Hanoverians were obliged to supply every want of the army. In the mean time all their resources were drained, and continued to be stopped. Commerce was entirely suspended; in the public offices, the salaries were not paid; tenants were unable to pay their rents, and debtors, the interest of their debts. Two successive scanty harvests augmented their distress; and, while they had nothing but *the dreadful prospect of famine before them*, the burthens imposed were increased by *war taxes*; by which alone the demands of the French army could be satisfied, the public credit being entirely ruined.

The Hanoverian Committee here enter into a variety of most affecting details, which the necessary limits of this Report will not admit of being noticed. It only remains therefore to state, that on the departure of the French army, Bernadotte was ordered to levy another contribution, (which even in more prosperous days would have proved extremely oppressive and ruinous to most of the inhabitants), without being permitted to regard any remonstrances or supplications they could make. At the same time upwards of 1000 horses, and a very great number of waggons and drivers, together with an immense quantity of provisions, were put in requisition, to follow the French army as far as Munich. There at last the poor drivers were discharged, and permitted to return home: but the horses and waggons were never sent back again; nor was any compensation made to the wretched owners for their loss: and the Hanoverians were obliged to pay for every article that was furnished to the French armies during their march through neutral countries.

"But," the report continues, "our sufferings did not terminate here. General Barbon, who, with a division of the French army was left at Hameln, compelled us to store that fortress with provisions for *six months*. When, shortly after, the Prussians occupied the Electorate, they did not take possession of the environs of Hameln; so that, being left open to the French garrison, *every thing in the surrounding villages was put in requisition*, and nothing left to the starving inhabitants. A convention that was afterwards made, certainly put a stop to those French ravages and extortions: by the same convention, however, it was enacted, that we should pay the additional sum of *from forty to forty-five thousand dollars* per month, for supplying the French garrison in the fortress.

"Mean-while the Prussian army, *amounting to upwards of eighty thousand men*, was quartered on the country; which was obliged to supply *every portion* of the forage necessary for this numerous army. The Prussians promised to pay for these provisions; but the price allowed was by no means adequate to *the third part of* their value, *and even of this scanty allowance the fifth part has hardly yet been paid*. Beside this, the Prussian troops were again to be provided for *by the inhabitants*, on whose houses they were quartered.

"Nor were our burthens in any degree alleviated, in respect to the requisitions of waggons and horses for carrying the military stores and baggage of the Prussian army. Beside these requisitions, which were more numerous in proportion as the roads were ruined, the inhabitants were obliged to transport, gratis, a very large Prussian magazine through the country; so that the cattle which still remained, being already exhausted in the French service, *were now entirely ruined by incessant driving*."

Extract from an Address to this Committee by Professor Timaeus, at Lunenburg.—"The present hostile measures of Prussia, and the blockade of the Elbe and Weser, are depriving us anew of every prospect of better times. A place, which but a few years ago was so flourishing, is now reduced to the hard necessity of begging alms; trade and commerce are entirely at a stand; no shipping on our river; no hands in our manufactures; no life, no spirit on the face of the inhabitants! Too weak to resist superior force, we have been obliged to receive into our walls a Prussian garrison of 2000 men, whom we are compelled to lodge and to maintain under our *own* roofs, and at our *own* expence!—Shall I add what our hearts feel on this occasion!—Hearts which breathed for the honour and happiness of Old England, which gloried in the thought of serving one King in common with a great and generous nation,—the only one in Europe, where liberty and the rights of men have not yet been subdued, and trampled upon, by the iron laws of despotism and insatiable rapacity!

"It has been entirely out of our power to relieve even *one third* of the poor and innocent sufferers around us;—the rest are languishing and pining beneath a load of complicated misery, under the hourly calls of hunger and distress; a picture which no feeling heart has fortitude enough to contemplate without horror. No longer than five days ago a highly respectable tradesman of this place, appeared before our Committee, and made the following pathetic speech:

"About six years since," said he, "I had "the satisfaction of lodging in your hands a "small sum, for the support of a family then "in great distress. I gave this little with the "greatest pleasure, and the blessing of God "went hand in hand with my trade. But "now, Sir, behold this very man before "you,—reduced to poverty and to the hard "necessity of looking around me for the sup-

" port which I can no longer expect from " the work of my hands, or the earnings of " my industry. I am now fifty years old; " and, for the very first time in my life, he " who used to support his indigent brethren " in times of peace and affluence, is reduced " to the wretched situation of applying him- " self to others for his own relief. The small " fortune which I had acquired by my indus- " try has fallen a prey to the French, six of " whom I was *forced* to lodge and maintain " every day in my house for the space of very " near three years. The best part of my " moveables is at the pawnbroker's, and all " that is now left me is,—*an empty house,*— " *a beloved wife with a ruined health,—and* " *eight children* CRYING FOR BREAD. I used " to employ six journeymen, and three ap- " prentices; but at present I have not " work for my own two hands. Applying " to a member of your Committee, I was told " that the stock of money transmitted to you, " Sir, from London, is exhausted, and no- " thing left for me. I know they are a ge- " nerous nation; I have lived amongst them " in my younger years, and may God bless " them for their noble and generous spirit! " I beg, my dear Sir, that you will write " once more to England, and state our pre- " sent misery to our benefactors. Although " we are forced against our inclination into " subjection by the Prussians, we still can- " not help considering ourselves in close al- " liance with a country whose King was, " and we still hope is, the father of his loyal " subjects."—[Here a torrent of tears inter- rupted his address: after a short pause he continued thus:]—" But it is not for myself " alone that I am looking out for relief. " Twenty families, that live in the same " street with me, have an equal claim to, " and stand in equal need of, your protec- " tion. I should feel truly unhappy if they " should not share with me in whatever our " benevolent and generous brethren in Eng- " land may send us through your hands, for " whom we are offering up our most fervent " prayer every day of our wretched life."

" Such," adds M. Timaeus, " is the fate " of almost one half of our inhabitants!"

The Hameln Committee continue their report in the following manner.—" But from this day (the 24th October, 1805) we date our greatest sufferings. The French army was obliged to withdraw from the other provinces of the Electorate; but the whole remainder of hostile forces was concentered to this narrow spot, where preparations were making to hold out a siege. From this moment the little commerce and business that remained was *entirely stopped*;—the regular pay ceased;—many parents fled from us and from their children;—the burthen of lodging and feeding the French officers, families, commissaries, children and cripples, grew intolerable;—the conveyance of victuals for the citizens was cut off;—yet, notwithstanding these accumulated horrors, every family was ordered to lay up a store of provisions *for a period of from three to six months!*—The best forest of the city was cut down in order to make 40,000 pallisades and to provide Fort George, the casemates, hospitals, watch-houses, caserns, and barracks, &c. with a great quantity of fire-wood: *our orchards and gardens, full of fruit-groves of the most exquisite beauty and plenty, were rased:* and this last branch of the industry of families, who had hitherto got their living by gardening, was cut off;*—the summer-houses are levelled to the ground:—the whole is inundated, and our little sweet paradise,—the work of our beloved forefathers,—is transformed into *a pool.*—Such of the meadows and pasture-grounds, as are to this day under water, are also entirely ruined;—many others of our fields are not ploughed, because our horses are daily put in requisition:—and the manufactories about the town have been abandoned, because they must be set on fire at the first attack; and consequently will for a long time be useless."

" The inundation of the country has produced contagious diseases: if these should spread (which our physicians greatly fear),—if we should fail in our hopes of speedy relief,—whence can be procured, for hundreds of our poor sufferers, beds and medicines,—whence for others bread that they may eat?

" But the condition of the poor peasantry, in the villages around the fortress, as well as that of the lower class of the villagers, is *still more desperate.* The burthen of lodging and supporting the numerous hostile troops, both before and after the blockade, fell heavier on the inhabitants of the open country, where the humanity of the French Generals, who often pitied us, could not prevent many disorders. Their horses have been daily put in requisition, for conveying all the numberless trains and baggages of the *depôts* to town;—they themselves were *put in requisition* for raising ramparts, and cutting pallisades, &c. —The vast supplies demanded of corn and forage, emptied their barns.—Afterwards, the French garrison sallied out three times, and swept away, even from the poorest villagers, every kind of victuals, cows, swine, and sheep, at the beginning of the winter; and

* The celebrated fruit and flower gardens in the vicinity of Hameln, were the finest, perhaps, in Europe, and afforded a source of profit to great numbers of honest families.—The finest fruits, at present to be found in many of the English gardens, have been raised from Hanoverian stocks or grafts.

again at the approaching of the allies, whom likewise they must support for the time!!!"

Extract of a Letter from the Rev. Dr. Reinhard, of Dresden, to the Rev. Mr. Steinkopff, dated Heidelberg, April 29, 1806.

"What aggravates the misery of the poor mountaineers to the highest pitch, is, the stagnation of every kind of manufacture. Most of the inhabitants of this province are manufacturers; and while the Saxon manufactures were in a flourishing state, were enabled to obtain, if not always an ample, at least a sufficient and respectable subsistence. These industrious, active, and honest people have now (where the scarcity has become so urgent) *no work to do*, since all the proprietors of manufactories find themselves, on account of the total stagnation of trade, under the necessity of confining their business to a narrower compass. Whole districts, where formerly every one was employed and earned his subsistence, are now without employment and without bread; and innumerable families are, in the strictest sense of the word, destitute."

Extract of a Letter from the Rev. Mr. Breitenstein, near Frankfort, April 30, 1806.

"What a burthen this is, you may easily imagine, when I tell you, that neither privates nor officers draw any pay from France, but are to be provided by the inhabitants with the necessaries, and even the superfluities of life. It is seen every day, that people who maintained themselves in time of peace by labour and industry, and were in good circumstances, now offer their *furniture, their clothes, and even their beds for sale, and often cannot find a buyer*. From this you may suppose the situation of the poorest, who have no earnings whatever."

Translation of an Account from Eibenstock, in the mountainous parts of Saxony.

"Among 500 children belonging to this town, of an age fit to be sent to school, there are at least 100 who look more like corpses than living beings. Many cannot go to school at all, being already reduced to too great a state of debility, by living upon the scanty allowance of potatoes, which they are yet hardly able to procure; (for in general they cannot get bread more than once in several days) and some also lye *stark naked!* in their huts."

In the preceding pages, the considerate reader cannot but have remarked the sentiments of gratitude excited by the bounty of compassionate Britons. These, however, form, comparatively, but a small portion of the letters of thanks transmitted to the Committee.—*Treasurers*, Messrs. HARDCASTLE and REYNER, *Old Swan Stairs*.

. . . . . .

ENDEAVOUR SOCIETY.

Having already (page 974) paid our tribute of praise to the author of the Manual of Orthodox Divinity, we embrace this opportunity of noticing the Society which sanctions it, and which assumes the humble name of the "Endeavour Society," the objects of which are so truly characteristic of British philanthropy, that we cannot but recommend it to the notice of every friend to religion and humanity. It has been established several years, but in the great and increasing multitude of such societies, its name and views have escaped our notice. The objects of this Society are not confined either to the bodies or the souls of men *exclusively, both* share in its concern. Instruction to the soul, medicines for the body, comforts for the female in the most interesting of all situations—that of child-birth; and sufferings from poverty—all these circumstances are provided for by this Society. Books are circulated, to instruct the ignorant in the established religion; medical attendance at their own houses is afforded to the poor when sick, and to pregnant women; and it is intended, if the fund will admit of it, to furnish what is still more useful, in some cases—linen, during the month, for mother and child.—The subscription is only one guinea per annum! Every subscriber is allowed any number of patients on his list. No delay takes place for want of a vacant letter. Every *necessary medical attention* is paid to *every* patient.—Can any compassionate mind refrain from assisting a Society which endeavours to extend so many advantages?

COLLECTANEA OF BRITISH ANTIQUITIES.

What was the state of Britain, previous to the time of Cæsar?—This is a question which we have repeatedly put to ourselves, and to others, without being able to obtain a satisfactory answer. Cæsar, no doubt, employed his means to acquire such information as might answer his purpose; but his purpose was military, in the first place; it was political, in the second place; but domestic it was not. The open and popular customs of the British, such as could be observed by traders, were all that we can suppose were reported to him, and these incidentally only. The coasts of the island were, probably, all that was known by those who had visited it; the interior, its customs, rites, and rulers, required, not merely the passing observations of a traveller, if such an one was permitted in the country; but the actual participation of a resident for a time, at least; and this the more, because we have every reason from the best information to believe, that he who

spent a *summer* among this people, would find them employed very differently, and inhabiting very different places, from what he would find who *wintered* among them.

Whether a single drop of truly ancient British blood circulates in our veins, we must confess ourselves ignorant; but we are not, therefore, the less interested in behalf of those, whom we venture, with some licence of speech, to call our *ancestors*. We acknowledge the impulse of an ardent *curiosity*, to give it no more honourable appellation; and if our readers partake of this principle, they will not be displeased at finding, from time to time, in our pages, such information as we are able to collect.

Whether the present Welch are the posterity of those who *fled* from the Romans and Saxons, who quitted their native and family settlements, to establish themselves in districts that promised greater security, is a question which we do not examine. It might be supposed, that only a part of the population of any conquered country *could* leave it: those who by arms vindicated their freedom, or those who by property redeemed it; but, certainly, the mass of the people did not forsake every part which the victor subdued, leaving the country a desart. Moreover, some submitted by inclination, some by composition, some by indifference; and the policy of the conquerors would forbid them from expatriating *all* whom they found on the lands, in the towns, or under the governments which they overrun.

Nevertheless, we hear so little of the affairs of Britain from the Roman writers, after the Romans had included the whole island, in a manner, under their power, as may convince us, that the *intimacy* between the victors and the vanquished was not extremely close, nor did they form those endearing alliances which might induce a free disclosure of national and familiar manners by one party, or excite an interest in examining and recording particularities by the other party.

We may illustrate our meaning by facts which are well known in the present day. There are many districts in the East Indies, held by British power, of which we know nothing. The customs of Calcutta we are indeed acquainted with, though in all probability not completely; but what do we know, except the name, of many provinces remote from the seat of government? Yet the curiosity, and the spirit of observation, of the British, are surely more alert than ever were those of the Romans; and the free circulation of books among us, by means of the noble art of Printing, is an incalculable advantage in favour of the gratification of a liberally inquisitive turn of mind.

We may therefore infer, without hazard of deception, that the Romans and the Britons were distinct as people; that there was a sensible difference between the governors and the governed, between the garrisons and the citizens; that, however numerous might be the Britons, and however strong their attachments to their native soil, yet they did not coalesce, did not, as we may say, amalgamate with their masters; but, though politically subjects of the same empire, they were distinct by inclination, by customs, and by hereditary observances. We are not, then, to look to the Romans for a full description of the ancient British.

The same principles apply to the invasion by the Saxons, with this difference against the supposable gratification of our wishes: that the Saxons did not, in all probability, concern themselves much about the character or manners of those whom they conquered; nor did they maintain much correspondence *with the learned at home*, as the Romans might have done, from which we could hope to pick up scattered spars of intelligence, and unite them into one orderly narration.

We are restricted, therefore, in our inquiries on this matter, to what memorials may have been preserved among the British themselves, in those parts where the Roman arms did not penetrate, or where, if they did penetrate, they were less effectual than elsewhere. The mountains of Wales afforded retreats, of which, no doubt, many natives availed themselves. The storm which drove them thither did not always rage with equal fury, and after the violence of it was over, the refugees might return to their friends and connections. Neither did the *commercial* productions of this part of the island offer any very great temptations to the avarice of the ruling powers; the revenues could not be very rich in *gold*, nor the imposts extremely productive of the precious metals. The riches of the people were corn and cattle; but neither of these was capable of being hoarded, and remitted to Rome in the shape of a fortune. They were the support of man, but not of pride; supplies for necessity, not for luxury. Where so little profit accrued, the station was not solicited; and fewer troops would be cantoned in a district which did not pay its expenses, than in those where commerce was more flourishing, and maintained, at the same time, an intercourse with friends at home on the Continent, and the hopes of one day returning to those friends not empty handed. In fastnesses thus comparatively free, the national character and manners would continue, if not unmolested, yet uncontaminated; pure, in proportion to the slighter interference of strangers, and delivered down by tradition, among a people

almost confined to their mountains, almost secluded from their neighbours, almost a world of their own.

An advantage not easily calculable has attended the transmissions of the Welch, in the preservation of their language. Nobody affects to doubt whether the language still extant be the same, as to its essence and principles, which was spoken in the days of Agricola and Cæsar. It boasts a still deeper antiquity; and though we do not incline, as is sometimes facetiously done, to carry it beyond Noah, or Adam, yet, so far as we can judge, from its analogy to other languages of deep antiquity, it may vie, in this respect, with any which have come to our knowledge.

In this language, different from that of the major part of our island, whatever learning was extant in Wales, was, as it were, locked up from general acquisition. Many learned Englishmen wished, but their wishes were unproductive; they made a few efforts, but these terminated without effect. Of late, a better spirit has begun to operate; and in the course of the last fifteen or twenty years, more communications have been made from the principality, in a manner intelligible to Englishmen, than for centuries before. Of these, and other documents, as they occur, we mean to avail ourselves, in conducting the Panorama. Convenience must, no doubt, controul the extent of the articles; but the nature of our work allows us occasionally to postpone what we cannot insert, and to resume at more favourable opportunities, what circumstances did not permit us, *when* we wished, to gratify our wishes by admitting.

Specimens of some of the Welch Laws. Extracted from the CAMBRIAN REGISTER, 1795-1796.

Howel, the good, King of Wales, succeeded to the principality of South Wales in 907, of all Wales in 940, died 948. Finding the laws of his kingdom in some confusion, he, "by the grace of God, prayer, and fasting, when Wales was in his possession, according to its boundary, summoned six men out of every comot in Wales, and brought them to him to the White House, together with seven score croziers, *i. e.* of bishops, archbishops, abbots, and good instructors, to form wholesome laws, to abrogate those that were become bad before his time, and to make good ones in their place; and thus to give stability to his own name.

"And out of that number, twelve of the wisest laymen, and one scholar, were selected to make the laws.

"Thus, when they had finished making the institutes, they imprecated the malediction of God, and of that assembly, and of Wales in general, on whoever should transgress them."

These laws begin with the officers of the court; and we learn from them, that these officers received from the King their *woollen* garments, from the Queen their *linen* ones, at Christmas, Easter, and Whitsuntide. The Queen had one-third of the King's income; her officers bore the proportion of one-third to those of the King. Satisfaction also was made to the Queen of one-third of what was made to the King. The privilege of protecting those who sought an asylum, appears to have been of great account; and of the three ways of insulting the King or Queen, one is, the violation of their protection.

The presumptive heir is next to the King and Queen; and his place in the hall is opposite to the King, on the other side of the fire.

Between the heir apparent, and the pillar next to him, the Judge of the Court shall sit; and the domestic chaplain on the other side of him; and then the chief of song; and then there is no fixed place to any one in the hall.

The protection of the Page of the chamber is from the time a person goes for *a load of straw to put under the King* (as his bed), and while the bed is making, and clothes spread upon it, until he takes them off in the morning.

Whoever kills a man, let him in the first place pay his satisfaction for the insult, and then for his death.

The judge of the court shall have a linen veil from the Queen at all times.—It is supposed that the judge wore this veil over his face in the execution of his office. But, that this judge was not denied relaxation at other times, appears from his right to receive from the King a chess-board, or backgammon board; literally, a throw-board of the bone of a sea-animal. From the Queen he received a gold ring.

The Falconer has a privilege, the day that the hawk shall kill a bittern, or a heron, or a curlew. Three services shall the King perform for the falconer on such a day: hold his stirrup while he dismounts, and hold the horse while he goes after the birds, and hold his stirrup while he mounts again. Three times shall the King compliment him at table that night. On one side of the chancellor he shall sit at the banquet.

A pound is the value of a hawk's nest; six score pence is the value of a hawk before mewing. Should she be white after mewing, she is worth a pound.—We may judge from these laws how highly the science of falconry was valued in Britain; for the value of a pound of silver was, in those days, much more than at present.

Whoever shall sue the chief Huntsman, must endeavour to take him on his bed, on the morning of May day, before he puts on his boots; for he is under no obligation to answer, unless he be found in that manner.

The page of the chamber claims all the King's clothes, except the garments for Lent; all the bed-clothes, his shirt, his coat, his cloak, his breeches, his stockings, and his shoes.—We presume that these comprehended all the parts of the King's dress. There might, however, be *royal* robes.

The domestic Bard shall receive a beast of the family out of every spoil in which he shall be present, and a man's share like every domestic: therefore, if there should be fighting, he shall sing the *Monarchy of Britain* in front of the battle.

When a bard shall ask a gift of a prince, let him sing one piece; when he asks of a baron, let him sing three pieces; should he ask of a villain, let him sing till he falls asleep.—This may probably be taken as an indication of the progress of generosity: a prince being more easily moved to a gift than a baron; but a villain rather sinking into sleep—sufficient mortification to a bard!—than capable of generosity.

The Physician shall sit next to the patron of the family, in the hall. Freely he shall have his land; a horse in attendance he shall have from the King. The physician who could cure a man of wounds in the head, in which his brain was seen; in the body, in which the bowels appeared; in the joints, so that the marrow might be seen—was entitled to three pounds for each of them.

The Foot-holder is to hold the King's feet in his lap, from the time he sits down at the banquet, until he goes to sleep; and he ought to scratch the King; and during that period he is to guard the King from every accident. From the same dish with the King he is to eat. He shall light the candles before the King at meat. He shall have a dish of meat, and liquor, though he is not to join in the feast.

The Porter, out of every present coming through the gate, shall have a handful; out of every load of fuel passing through the gate, a billet which he can pull without hindering the horse; out of the booty of swine, the sow which he can lift up by the bristles with one hand, so that her feet shall be as high as his knees. Any animal without a tail, passing through the gate, shall belong to him. He should have the remains of the cheese which he shall toast.

The Baker-woman is entitled to receive her victuals from the palace, and her clothes and her dish-meat when the King is there; and her cake after baking, out of every sort of flour she shall bake of; and her bed in the provision-house. She is not obliged to rise up to any one while she is baking. Her protection extends as far as she can throw with her spattle.

The three indispensables of a King are: his chaplain, to say grace at meals, and to sing mass; the judge of the court, to explain every thing dubious; and his family, to execute his commissions.

The three indispensables of a Gentleman: his harp, his cloak, and his cauldron.

The three indispensables of a Villain: his trough, his borer, and his fire-hob.

A King's buckhound whelp, his value is twenty-four pence, while his eyes are shut; in his kennel, thirty-six pence; while he vaguely hunts, half a pound; when he is well trained, his value is a pound.

Whoever shall kill a cat, which guards the house and the barn of the King, her head shall be put towards the earth, and her tail held upwards, upon an even floor, and then he shall pour wheat about her, until the tip of her tail be covered over. Another cat is worth four pence in law. The required qualities of a cat are: to be perfect eared, perfect eyed, perfect nailed, perfect tailed, unmarked by fire, and killing mice, and that she devours not her kittens.

A consecrated yew, its value is a pound. An oak, its value is six score pence; whoever bores it through, shall pay threescore pence. A mistletoe branch, its value is threescore pence. Thirty pence is the value of every principal branch in the oak. Threescore pence is the value of a sweet apple-tree. Thirty pence is the value of a sour apple-tree. Fifteen pence is the value of a wood yew-tree. Seven pence halfpenny is the value of a thorn-tree. Fourpence is the value of every tree after that.

Whoever cuts down an oak-tree in the king's highway, let him pay three kine, as a compensation fine, to the King, and the value of the oak, and let him clear the way for the King; and when the King comes by, let him cover the stump of the tree with one coloured cloth. If a tree should fall across a river, and if hitches, or nets, be drawn over the tree, the owner of the stump of the tree owns it, on whichever side of the river shall cast the tree.

In order to form some notion of the comparative value of money between that time and the present, we may observe, that the value of seven days' ploughing is *two pence*; so that, when an apple-tree is valued at threescore pence, it is in fact the value of thirty weeks' labour of a ploughman; which shews how extremely scarce valuable plants of fruit-bearing trees must have been at this period. Six score pence is the value of a gelding. A foal is valued at four pence till August; the first of December, twelve pence; the first of February, eighteen; and its value advances till it is three years old, when it is worth four-score and sixteen pence. An apple-tree, therefore, was worth three-fifths of a horse.

The pecuniary satisfactions, or mulcts, for homicide, are among the most curious remains of ancient legislation; but these must be postponed for the present.

EXCERPTA,

From the *Report from the Committee upon Expired and Expiring Laws, for the First Session of the Third Parliament of the United Kingdom of Great-Britain and Ireland (47 Geo. III.) Ordered to be printed 22d December*, 1806.

This is an extremely valuable paper, and must have been drawn up with uncommon labour and attention, and, from its appearance, with corresponding correctness also. The importance attached to it, as it concerns the public, and the whole system of our trade and commerce, excites regret that its circulation cannot be *rebus sic stantibus*, equal to its consequence. It should lie in every merchant's counting-house, on every manufacturer's desk, and in every lawyer's office. To the public it is *necessary*; to the author* who planned and arranged it, it is highly *honourable*; to the nation at large, it *must* be beneficial, particularly to the Boards of Custom and Excise.

It contains, first:—A detailed Statement or Register of all the temporary Laws, of a public and general nature, now in force, which have been enacted by the Parliaments of England, or Great-Britain, or Ireland, or of the United Kingdom, from the commencement of the reign of King William III. to July 23, 1806 (being the last day of the session of Parliament, 46 Geo. III.); specifying the matter, date, chapter, and title of each of the original Acts, and the dates and chapters of the respective subsidiary Acts by which they have been either amended or continued.—In drawing up this Statement or Register, the Committee has proceeded by continuing the Enumeration of Laws contained in the Report of the Committee on Expired and Expiring Laws, ordered to be printed on the 24th day of January, 1806, and adding thereto such temporary Laws as have since been passed, and are now in force; and also, by making such alterations therein as have been rendered necessary by other Laws which were passed during the last session.

Secondly,—An Enumeration of all the public general Laws, of a temporary nature, which have expired between January 21, 1806 (being the first day of the session, 46 Geo. III.) and Dec. 15, 1806, being the first day of the present session.

Thirdly,—An Enumeration of all the public general Laws which are about to expire at the end of the present session, or on or before August 1, 1808, or in the course, or at the end, of any session which may commence during that period; arranged chronologically, according to the dates at which they will expire respectively.

Fourthly,—Laws which are of a temporary, but uncertain duration, are distinguished—those which depend on the war, from those which depend on other contingencies.

Those depending on the war,—the terms in which their limitation is prescribed are different not only in different Acts, but sometimes also in the title and body of the same Act: in the mode of distinguishing the several phrases applied to their duration, the Committee has followed former precedents.

To the whole is subjoined an Alphabetical Table of Matters.

We submit, by way of specimen, a selection of the information contained respecting Expiring Acts in 1807-1808.

In the present year 1807 will expire:

6th of Ann, 1708, £40,000. per ann. Annuities; also £80,000. same date.

1 Geo. 3. Duties on Malt, Mum, Cyder, and Perry, &c. The Act 46. Geo. 3. continues the Duty on *Malt* only.

26 Geo. 3. c. 81. For encouraging British Fisheries. Continued by various Acts.—By 39 Geo. 3. c. 100. (12 July, 1799) the Act 35 Geo. 3. c. 56. was revived from 1 March, 1799, and continued to the end of the next session.—The two next Acts continued and amended the Act 39 Geo. 3. c. 100.—The Act 42 Geo. 3. c. 79, revived, amended, and continued the Acts of 26, 27, 35, and 39 Geo. 3. though it did not notice the first of these in the title.—The Acts 44 Geo. 3. c. 86, 46 Geo. 3. c. 34, revive and continue the Act 39 Geo. 3. c. 100. and notice, but do not explicitly continue, the several amending Acts.

37 Geo. 3. c. 70. Against seduction of soldiers and sailors.—Mutiny, continued 41. G. 3. c. 29. 1800.

37 Geo. 3. c. 97. Treaty of Amity and Commerce with America.

* We have been told, the Right Honourable Gentleman who now so ably fills the Chair, was the original mover in this business; and of whose labours and extensive knowledge in other public measures we shall have frequent occasion to take notice.

39 Geo. 3. c. 3. Duty on Pensions, Sugar, Malt, Tobacco, &c. See Land-Tax Act, 38 Geo. 3 c. 5. and Land-Tax Redemption Acts, 38 Geo. 3. c. 60. 42 Geo. 3. c. 116.—See also the Customs Consolidation Act, 43 Geo. 3. c. 68. §. 10. and Excise Consolidation-Act, 43 Geo. 3. c. 69. §. 1.

39 Geo. 3. c. 100. British Fisheries. Vide 26 G. 3. c.81.

39 Geo. 3. Disembodied Militia Allowances.

39 Geo 3. c. 87. Thames Police.—See 42 Geo. 3. c, 76. §. 23, the continuance of which Act is until 1 June, 1807, &c. See also 43 Geo. 3. c. 115, as to Seizure of Exciseable Commodities, under the Act 39, 40 Geo. 3.

1807.

41 Geo. 3. c. 44. Warehousing British Sugar.

41 Geo. 3. c. 74. Sugars' Drawback, exported from Ireland.

42 Geo. 3. c. 61. Police Offices adjacent to London.

43 Geo. 3. c. 11. Discontinuing Sugar Drawbacks and Bounties. Continued 46 Geo. 3. c. 10.

43 Geo. 3. c. 97. Irish Revenue Regulation. —This Act is only continued in part.

46 Geo. 3. c. 120. As to Auctions—Permits—Tanners.

43 Geo. 3. c. 103. Warehousing Portugal and Spanish Wines. As to the time of landing Wine, expired July 5, 1805.

43 Geo. 3. Woollen Manufactures—Suspended Prosecutions. Continued 40 Geo. 3. c. 136. 44 Geo. 3. c. 64. 45 Geo. 3. c. 83.

44 Geo. 3. c. 32. Irish Militia Service—46 Geo. 3. c. 31.

44 Geo. 3. c. 101. Bahama American Salt Trade.

44 Geo. 3. c. 103. Customs and Excise, Irish. Continued, as to Permits, 44 Geo. 3. c. 103.

45 Geo. 3. c. 18. Customs in Ireland.

46 Geo. 3. c. 62. Additional Duties on Iron, Sugar, Tea.

45 Geo. 3. c. 19. Excise and Inland Duties. The 3s. Duty on Houses, repealed by 41 Geo. 3. c. 36.

45 Geo. 3. c. 22. Duty on Irish Malt and Spirits. Continued 46 Geo. 3. c. 120.

45 Geo. 3. c. 47. Examination of Military Abuses.—Vide 45 Geo. 3. c. 70.

45 Geo. 3. c. 98. Increasing Drawbacks on Linens exported to West Indies.

Foreign *Plain* Linens, 45 Geo. 3. expires same time.

45 Geo. 3. c. 105. Hearth-Money, and Assessed Taxes, Ireland, continued and *amended*, 46 Geo. 3. c. 120.
Paper, and Paper Hangings, Ireland.
Dublin Paving. Coals, Ireland.

46 Geo. 3. c. 30. Trade to Cape of Good Hope.

46 Geo. 3. c. 66. Mutiny Act. Expires in Great-Britain, March 25; Ireland, April 1; Jersey, &c. May 1; Gibraltar, &c. March 25, 1808.

46 Geo 3. c. 103. Imported Salt Fish from Newfoundland, with Bounty.

46 Geo. 3. c. 118. Time for purchasing legal Quays in London: compare 43 Geo. 3. c. 124

46 Geo. 3. c. 126. Innkeepers' Subsistence of Soldiers.

46 Geo. 3. c. 139. Regulation Malt Duties.

46 Geo. 3 c. 152. To stay Prosecutions—Bark and Leather.

8 Geo. 1. For Encouragement of the Silk Manufactures: but this Act is continued, so far as relates to the Encouragement of the Silk Manufactures of this Kingdom, by 46 Geo. 3. cap. 110. (No. 198), by which the Bounties specified in this Act are increased during the War.

29 Geo. 2. Bounty on British and Irish Linens.—See 23 Geo. 3. cap. 21. (No. 38.)

4 Geo. 3. c. 19. For importing Salt from Europe into the Province of Quebec, in America. Continued by 6. c. 42. 13. c. 69. 20. c. 19. 26. c. 53. 31. c. 43. 36. c. 40. §. 7. 43. c. 29. §. 7. Expires 24th June, 1808.

4 Geo. 3. c. 26. Bounty on Importation of Hemp from America. Continued by 28. Geo. 3. c. 52. §. 12. 46. Geo. 3. c. 29. §. 4.

6 Geo. 3. c. 28. Prohibition of Foreign Wrought Silks and Velvets, and Combination among Workmen employed in Silk Manufacture.
Continued as to prohibition of Foreign Silks and Velvets, except so far as is repugnant to 43 Geo. 3. cap. 68. Schedule A. *tit. Silk.*

Continued also by eight other Statutes, all of which are referred to in the margin.

17 Geo. 3. c. 43. Permitted Exportation of Tobacco-pipe Clay to West Indies.
Continued by various Acts marked in margin.

19 Geo. 3. c. 18. Annuities for 29 years.

23 Geo. 3. c. 77 Encouragement of Flax and Cotton Manufactures.
The Act 43 Geo. 3. c. 29, is with an exception as to the Drawback on Brimstone.
N. B. Amended, 43 Geo. 3. c. 29.—Continued 46 Geo. 3. c. 29.

26 Geo. 3. c. 41. Encouragement of Greenland Fishery.
N. B. This Act, and 29 Geo. 3. c. 53. amended, as well as continued, by 32 Geo. 3. c. 22. and 42 Geo. 3. c. 22.—See 46 Geo. 3. c 9. as to Men.

33 Geo. 3. c. 74 Payment of Creditors in Scotland.

38 Geo. 3. c. 68. Duties on Spices.
But query? See 43 Geo. 3. c. 63.

39 Geo. 3. Duties on Pensions, &c. also on Sugar, Malt, Tobacco, Snuff.—See Land-Tax Act, 38 Geo. 3. c 5. and Land-Tax Redemption Acts, 38 Geo. 3. c. 60. 42 Geo. 3. c. 116.—See also the Customs Consolidation Act, 43 Geo. 3. c. 68 §. 10. and Excise Consolidation-Act, 43 Geo. 3. c. 69. §. 1.

41 Geo. 3. c. 77. Importation of Salt Fish from Newfoundland.—See 46 Geo. 3. c. 103. as to Bounty.

41 Geo. 3. c. 95 Warehousing British Plantation Spirits in Ireland.

43 Geo. 3. c. 35 Grain and Flour to and from Ireland.
The Act 43 Geo. 3. c. 14. is also "for "permitting the Exportation of Seed "Corn from Great-Britain to Ireland; "and the Importation of Malt into "Great-Britain from Ireland."
[Repealed as to Malt by 44 Geo. 3. c. 89. §. 1.—And now see 46 Geo. 3. c. 97, which permits the free Interchange of Corn and Flour between Great-Britain and Ireland.]

43 Geo. 3. c. 68. Newfoundland Fishery.

44 Geo. 3. Importation Hides, Tallow, Wool (not Cotton Wool), in Foreign Bottoms.—See 45 Geo. 3. c. 57, for West Indies.

46 Geo. 3. c. 119. Prohibition Slave Trade.

Those Laws which expire in following years, as 1809, 1810, 1811, are very properly reported also.

The importance of these regulations is evident from a mere inspection of the subjects we have extracted, which is but a small proportion. It is proper that those who are any way affected by these Acts, should have a sufficient time allowed them to mature and to state their sentiments, together with what *improvements* have occurred to them, if they are to be revived, or continued; as many things occur *incidentally*, which may not be thought of suddenly.

We conclude this article by observing, with what diligence the various branches of our trade have been fostered, by bounties, by exemptions, &c. continued for a time; at the end of which time, fresh regulations have confirmed the advantages which experience had demonstrated, and removed those that had been found injurious. Our commerce, then, is not wholly spontaneous, or natural to our island; but has been gradually improved, enlarged, accumulated, the work of ages, till, at length, it is all but boundless.

REGULATIONS OF THE WOOLLEN MANUFACTURES, AND SYSTEM OF APPRENTICESHIP.

Different stages and states of society require different regulations to promote their welfare. That nourishment which is proper for infants, is unappropriate to adults. When commerce and manufactures are in an infant state, they demand a fostering care, that, operating as a bounty, may strengthen and advance them: but, when strengthened and advanced, other measures may be proper to establish and govern them. We presented, in our first Number, the Report of the Committee of the House of Commons on the State of the Woollen Manufactory, that staple article of our country! As this subject will speedily be re-considered by Parliament, as appears by a motion of Lord Temple, we think it may not be amiss to remind our readers of the probability, that the system established in the days of Queen Elizabeth is likely to undergo some alterations. We desire to be understood as giving no opinion at present on a subject of so great importance, but shall merely insert a *pro* and *con* state of the question.

We shall, in the first place, transcribe a few paragraphs from the Speech of Randle Jackson, Esq. before the Committee of the House of Commons, on behalf of the Clothworkers and Sheermen of Yorkshire, Lancashire, Wiltshire, Somersetshire, and Gloucestershire.—London, Stockdale, 1806.

By turning to the Panorama, pp. 120, 121, it will be seen that the Committee recommended the repeal of the Act of 5 and 6 Edw. VI. for putting down gig-mills. On this subject Mr. J. declaims at some length in behalf of his clients; observing that,

Mr. E. S. of Uley, in Gloucestershire, ad-

mits, upon his cross-examination, " that cloth *may be overstrained*, so as to afford *an extraordinary profit* at foreign markets, *without breaking the thread*; that great art is required in using the gig-mill, and that the cloths done by the hired or public mills have been done badly." In which state the cloth is pressed, and goes to the customer without the damage being discoverable. And even when the ground is broken, we have abundant proof that it is the custom in those cases, so to fine-draw, flock, and press, as almost to defy detection.

Mr. W. of Dursley, allows it to be his opinion, that the medley cloths dyed in the wool will not bear *the pressure of the gig-mill*, like the white cloths of his county; and he goes on to say, " that they leave their lists longer on the cloths meant to be dressed by the gig-mill than on those dressed by hand, *to provide for the necessary degree of straining in the gig-mill*;" he adds, that the great advantage of gig-dressed cloth is in its *appearance*, and that they sell such cloths for a *higher price* than those done by hand."

Mr. William S. of Frome, in Somersetshire, allows, " that they mill their cloths one yard short in an end, to *bear the force of the gig-mill*."

It is admitted that three persons, with the assistance of the gig-mill, would dress about as much cloth as twenty-four persons could dress by hand.

In speaking of the sheering-frame, on which also the Committee reported, he thus reasons against it:

The sheering-frame has this mischievous effect, it will not *sheer even*; and if the cloth is not put on perfectly even, it will knib, that is, catch it with the blade. Now, if it knibs when they sheer by hand, the sensation of the sheerer immediately detects it, and the injury is stopped. The fine-drawers have said, that the holes made in the cloth by the sheers are of the size of a pea, or a gun-shot; while, on the other hand, those made by the sheering-frame are generally three or four inches long: the reason is, that when a hole is made, it cannot be detected till the blade, which is some inches broad, and fixed in the frame, has passed over a space equal to its breadth; they then find out that a hole is made, and they stop the machine.

They say it is not necessary to have a man after each machine, as you have after a pair of sheers, but that one man superintends half a dozen of them.

The witnesses have uniformly stated the extra straining of the cloth to average, at least, *two* yards in twenty above the legal measure.

One of the Yorkshire masters, a respectable magistrate in that county, was called: an honourable member of the Committee reminded him of the unfortunate circumstance which led to the loss of the Russian market; namely, that a Russian brigade, newly clothed with English cloth, happening to be exposed to a drenching shower, their coats shrunk into waistcoats. Mr. C. the witness, admitted the anecdote, and added, that they had the most exorbitant demands made upon them by the German factors and merchants, on account of extraordinary straining!

Mr. Lambert is, by profession, an overlooker or examiner of cloths for the drapers; that is, when the draper looks out a certain quantity of cloths at the warehouse of the factor, they are sent to a person whose peculiar business it is to examine and report upon them. Mr. Lambert tells you he examined, at least, two hundred cloths a week for various drapers; that by far the greatest proportion of those which pass through his hands are dressed by the gig-mill; and that he pursues a mode which cannot fail of detecting the injury, if any be done to the cloth. He begins with taking out the press, that is, getting off the gloss, he can then discern what injuries there are; and he tells you, that out of two hundred cloths he is obliged to throw aside a considerable number.—He says, that the gig-cloth is looser; it feels more hollow in the hand, and the injuries are of a different nature from those which he finds in the hand-dressed cloths. He examines all the hand-dressed cloths which come from an eminent manufacturer in the West of England, and in the course of the last two years he has not had occasion to return five of them.

The cloths, whether over-strained at the tenter, or by gig-dressing, go abroad in that state of extension:—those intended for home consumption, especially for the London wear, are damped and cold-pressed; the damping drives them in, perhaps, half a yard upon twenty; but the cloths meant for the foreign market are not damped, but merely pressed, which does not drive them in more than a very few inches at most.—Mr. E. one of the Yorkshire masters, admits, that the coarser kind of woollen cloths are strained in the proportion of five yards upon twenty-five.—Mr. E. says, truly, that these cloths shrink back towards the legal length every time they are exposed to the air.

When cloths are taken from the tenter, though notoriously overstrained, nevertheless the length is found fraudulently to correspond with the seal put on at the fulling-mill. I had been informed, that by some management at the fulling-mill, it was not unusual to put on seals, these denoting a longer length than the cloth actually measured, so as to allow for subsequent straining.

The clothiers well know, and it is in evidence before you, that the searchers have not the common means of living, if they do their duty—that they are cast for sustenance

upon betraying their trust—that their families must starve if they are faithful, so scanty is their allowance; while, on the other hand, he is liberally rewarded if he refrains from visiting them, or makes his visits in a complaisant way.

Adverting to the system of apprenticeship, which now stands for seven years of learning; but which there is a general persuasion, that it might be shortened, to advantage, Mr. J. proceeds:

I stated, in my opening address, that the abrogation of the system of apprenticeship appeared to me to be one of the most awful propositions ever submitted to the Legislature. It is not enough to shew that a weaver or a cloth-worker can get a knowledge of his trade in a few months or a few years!—Who shall say that the superior morals of our countrymen have not been owing to the prevalence of a system which places youth under proper controul during that most critical period of life, when even parental authority is not so effectual as the authority of the master?

It is a custom which has prevailed time out of mind, till within these few years, that in some parts of the country it has been relaxed, principally owing to the introduction of machinery, and the factory system.

I submit to the Committee, that, whether looked at in a moral or political point of view, the strongest objections present themselves against that freedom from restraint which you are urged to enact. If you give way in this instance, it would be absurd to argue that the abrogation of apprenticeship will be confined to the woollen trade, and that it will not extend to all the various other branches of manufacture. No man can imagine for a moment that you can do away apprenticeship among the clothiers, and support it among the manufacturers of leather, iron, and other articles. You must annihilate the system altogether, or you must have the courage to enforce it in this manufacture as well as in others. I do not mean that you need enforce it according to the extent of the statute of Elizabeth, that is, in many respects, an obsolete statute. I do not say that it is absolutely necessary that apprenticeship shall be for seven years. I do not say that you shall not listen to the observation of an honourable member, which I felt forcibly when it was urged, namely, that when one youth is bound an apprentice, and sees another working by his side who is not bound, getting five or ten shillings a week, while he is getting nothing, he will feel great uneasiness and impatience.—If seven years be inconvenient, say six, or even five years. If it be necessary to give to youth progressive wages, in God's name let it be so.—What I contend for is, the continuation of that system of apprenticeship which binds the youth from fourteen years of age to twenty-one, unless you should think proper to qualify the term of its duration.

But, take it, that persons in elevated stations may say, We cannot endure these troublesome rogues under our roof. Let them, in that case, discharge their duty by deputy—let the foremen, or others whom the master may appoint, receive the apprentices into their houses and families, and exercise over them, as far as may be, a delegated authority.

In opposition to these sentiments, on this latter subject, the following paper has been handed to us with a view to its general circulation. We also refer our readers to the 6th Resolution of the Committee, before which Mr. J. advocated the cause of the sheermen. Panorama, p. 134.

A few Opinions of some great and good Men, and sound Lawyers, on the Apprentice Laws of Queen Elizabeth; applicable to the Æra of 1806-7.

Rennard and Chase, Brewers, 1 *Bur. Rep. p.* 2.—Lord Mansfield, in his arguments on this case, says, "It hath been well observed that this Act (viz. 5 Eliz. cap. 4.) is, 1. A Penal Law. 2. It is a Restraint on Natural Right. 3. It is contrary to the general Right given by the Common Law of this Kingdom. 4. The Policy upon which this Act was made, is from experience become doubtful. Bad and unskilful Workmen are rarely prosecuted. This Act was made early in the reign of Queen Elizabeth, when the great number of Manufacturers, who took refuge in England after the Duke of Alva's persecution, had brought Trade and Commerce with them, and enlarged our notions. The Restraint introduced by this Law was thought unfavourable; and the Judges, by a liberal interpretation, have extended the qualification for exercising the Trade much beyond the letter of it, and confined the Penalty and Prohibition to Cases precisely within the express letter." *Burn's Justice, Vol. I. Art. Apprentices.*

3d Modern Reports, p. 317.—Judge *Dolben*, in delivering his Opinion, said, that "No encouragement was ever given to Prosecutions upon the Statute 5 Eliz. and that it would be for the common good if it were repealed; for no greater punishment can be to the Seller, than to expose to sale goods ill-wrought, for by such means he will never sell more."

2 Salk. 613. *The Queen v. Maddox.*—It was held by the Court, "that upon Indictments upon the Statute of 5 Eliz. the following of a Trade for seven years to be sufficient

without any binding; this being a hard Law."—And so held in Lord Raymond, 738.

Burn's Justice.—"So detrimental was this Statute thought, that by 15 Car. II. all Persons spinning or making Cloth of Hemp or Flax, or Nets for Fishing, or Storin or Cordage, might exercise those Trades without serving Apprenticeships.—And so little did the Legislature, at subsequent periods, think that any benefit was to be derived from the Statute of 5 Elizabeth; or that Manufactures were made better, or improved by this Restraint;—and the minds of men being more liberal, that Trade should, as much as possible, be flung open; it is enacted, by 6 and 7 William III. that any Apprentice discovering two persons guilty of Coining, so as they are convicted, shall be deemed a Freeman, and may exercise his Trade as if he had served out his time."

And, in order still stronger to shew how little the Legislature esteemed the seven years binding ameliorated Manufactures, it is enacted, by 3 Geo. III. cap. 8. that "All Officers, Mariners, and Soldiers who have been employed in His Majesty's Service, and not deserted, may exercise such trades as they are apt for, in any Town or Place."

So dangerous and fatal has been the evil of Combinations and Conspiracies amongst Journeymen, that in particular instances, as in Trades where many hands are required and very little skill, as Dying, and such like, the Legislature have made express Laws to give relief to Masters. See 17 *Geo.* III. *cap.* 33.; which enables Dyers, in Middlesex, Essex, Surrey, and Kent, to employ Journeymen who have not served Apprenticeships.—And to such a pitch has this mischief, in the West Riding of Yorkshire increased, by the conspiracies facilitated by the Act of 5 *Eliz.* that it goes to the total annihilation of our staple Manufactures, and every other Trade, which hopes for success not only by the Home, but from Foreign Consumption.——See the *Report from the Committee of the House of Commons, on the Woollen Trade and Manufacture of these Kingdoms*, made in the last Session of Parliament. 4th July, 1806. Panorama, pp. 119, 135.

After stating the above, let us quote the Words of the immortal Lord Chief Justice Coke on this point.—"That, at the Common Law, no Man could be prohibited from working in any lawful Trade; for the Law abhors Idleness, the mother of all evil—*Otium omnium vitiorum Mater*—and especially in young men, who ought in their youth (which is their seed time) to learn lawful Sciences and Trades, which are profitable to the Commonwealth, whereof they might reap the benefit in their old age; for "idle in Youth, poor in Age."

And therefore the Common Law abhors all Monopolies, which prohibit any from working in any lawful Trade. And that appears in 2 Hen. V. 5. b.—A Dyer was bound not to use the Dyer's Craft for two years: and there Judge *Hall* held, "that the Bond was against the Common Law; and by G—d if the Plaintiff was here, he should go to Prison till he paid a Fine to the King." And vide 7 Edw. III. 65 b. "And, if he who takes upon himself to work is unskilful, his Ignorance is a sufficient Punishment to him, for *Imperitia est maxima mecanicorum pœna et quilibet quærit in quâlibet arte peritos*:—which is, that want of skill is the greatest punishment of Mechanics; for every body will employ those that are the best skilled in their business. And, if any one takes upon himself to work, and spoils it, an Action on the Case lies against him."

Having observed thus much, and stated the Opinions of two such great men as Lord Coke and Lord Mansfield, we can only add one dixit of Lord Coke's, that, "Acts of Parliament which are made against the Freedom of Trade, Merchandizing, Handicrafts, and Mysteries, never live long." *4th Inst.* 31.

It is to be observed, that this very great check upon Trade, by not being able to employ any hands that are able to perform the work required, and especially in those Trades which are so easily learnt in a very short space of time, greatly enhances the prices of all articles, and that at a time when population is daily increasing, and the demand proportionably increasing. And this Statute is not only a restraining Statute, but also an enabling Statute, as it empowers the Workmen to enter into Combinations against their Masters, and to dictate their own terms, encouraging vice, idleness, and drunkenness; demands being made on the Masters for an increase of Wages; those demands supported by dangerous Combinations and Conspiracies, and extorted by Threats. And such increase, when obtained, not applied for the wholesome purpose of supporting themselves and their families, but to that very destructive purpose, ruinous to their families, and highly detrimental to the Public at large, the enabling of the parties to spend more days of the week in idleness, drunkenness, vice, and immorality. In many Manufactures, so much money is extorted by the Journeymen, by means of these Combinations, from their Employers, that the Journeymen will work but three days in the week; so that 600 are necessarily required to do the work that 300 might do.

Until these Laws, restricting the binding of Apprentices, are repealed, all Laws made for the prevention of Combinations among Workmen, can be of no avail, and will re-

main a dead letter in the Law Books: as in in this free Country, (however that Freedom may be limited as to the checking of Masters binding Apprentices,) no Law on this point can be so worded, that the art, wickedness, and ingenuity of men will not contrive to defeat. A bad and absurd Law is made, viz. the Apprentice Act, which by the extension of Trade, is found detrimental to Trade; and then, to do away the mischiefs of that Law, another absurd Law is made, viz. the Law to prevent Combination,—so that mischief is heaped upon mischief, and absurdity upon absurdity. TRADE SHOULD BE AS FREE AS THE AIR WE BREATHE. This is an axiom the truth of which every day convinces us.

Another consideration arises naturally from reflecting on this subject, *viz.* the distinction between MONOPOLY and COMBINATION. In the first, the revenue is increased by more work being done, which is certainly beneficial to the Country, as it enables the monopolisers to live in greater splendour, thereby spending their money in those articles of consumption for themselves and connections which they could not do, if their business was not *extended*; — whereas, Combination among workmen tends to cramp trade instead of extending it, and totally to stop all exertions in commerce, every time those who combine think proper to harrass their employers; and, in proportion as their demands are granted, so in proportion does it contribute to dam up the natural course of business, which otherwise would flow without interruption.—In such alarming situations, then, what is to become of trade, if those who carry it on are hindered from preventing evils which otherwise must continually occur?

LIFE OF A WARLIKE BISHOP OF MUNSTER.

We have lately, in the course of our reading, met with an epitome, in German, of the life and actions of the famous warlike Bishop of Munster, Christopher Bernard von Galen. It is probable that some of our readers may be able to give us further information on the subject of a hero, who, by this account, ought not to be classed among the undistinguished of his time and place. It should seem, that an exaggerated renown of his exploits has been as fatal to this enterprizing commander's fame, as silence itself could have been: having removed him into the regions of fiction.

C. B. von Galen, under the name of Beerndtje von Galen in the provinces of Friesland, Overyssel, and Groningen, who is yet the dread of children, was the terror of the period in which he lived.

Monarchs of great and independent states sought his friendship, because his enmity was destructive. A boundless ambition, nourished by the consciousness of his own power, and increased by the success which crowned his first attempts, is apparent in all his transactions. Although never to be forgotten in the history of Munster, he is not mentioned in the general history of Germany and the Low Countries: and yet this extraordinary man, who, with little experience in war, placed himself at the head of great armies, conducted sieges, fought battles, and often supported an army of 20 to 30,000 men, which furnished him with the means of prolonging dreadfully destructive wars, without any expence to himself; who, when deserted by all, except himself, knew how to choose the proper moment for alliances and negociation, has hitherto found no impartial biographer worthy of him. The author of *La Vie et les Actions memorables de Christofle Bernard de Galen*, and almost all writers of the history of the Netherlands of that period, express themselves on every action as the most decided enemies of this Prince. The Vicar General of Munster, Johann von Alpen, in his *Vita et Res gestæ Christophori Bernardi a Galen*, 2 vols. is not free from the temptation of extreme partiality to his own country; moreover, he loses himself in the sea of general history. Fassman's "Dialogues of the Dead," which in the tenth part describe the character of this Prince; also, "The History of the Lives of important Persons," are scarcely worth mentioning. The anonymous author of the last mentioned work, who had the privilege of consulting the best biographers, united with the *Theatrum Europæum*, might have produced something valuable if he had understood the art of using works of history to advantage; but, as he totally failed herein, so his biography is a mixture half false and half true. In no case is the relation complete; and neither improved by order, nor by representation. We learn little of the private life of the Prince, or of his early youth; and are never told that he was once in the military service of Cologne. The author says, indeed, that Bernard von Galen was one of the greatest generals of his time, without ever having previously done any military service; the fact is exaggerated, like many others; and the last, as appears from many passages, is false. He endeavours in a peculiar manner to vindicate his hero from the contradiction between the military and clerical orders. "These are," many may say, "fine qualifications for a general, but not for a clergyman;" but we are to observe, that a spiritual Prince of the German Empire is no common clergyman, whose proper office is that of attendance on divine service.

MR. DE CHATEAUBRIAND'S ACCOUNT OF HIS EXCURSION TO MONT-BLANC.

I have seen many mountains in Europe and in America, and it has always struck me that the description of those lofty natural monuments had ever been exaggerated beyond the truth: neither has what experience I have acquired in my late excursion effected any change in my opinion. I have visited the valley of Chamouni, which Mr. de Saussure has rendered famous: but I question its affording the same *speciosa deserti* to the poet as to the mineralist. Be that as it may, I shall candidly state the reflections that occurred to me during my journey thither; conscious that my private opinion is not of sufficient weight to offend any individual.

At my departure from Geneva, the weather was rather cloudy, but it began to clear up when I reached Servoz. The summit of Mont-Blanc is not to be discovered from hence, but you have a distinct view of that part of its *snowy* brow which is called the *Dome*.

Having overcome, at length, the height of the *Montées*, the valley of Chamouni presents itself. We proceeded below the glacier *des Bossons*, whose pyramids are descried between the branches of the fir and the larch trees. On account of its white colour, and of the tapered shape of its icicles, M. Bourrit has compared this glacier to a fleet under way; I would add, in a gulph surrounded with verdant forests.

I stopped at the village of Chamouni, and the next day reached the Montanvert; which I ascended on the finest day in the whole year. Arrived at its summit, which in reality is only a platform of the Mont-Blanc, I discovered what they most improperly call *la Mer de Glace*.

Imagine a valley, the bottom of which is entirely covered by a river. From the mountains that form this valley are suspended over the river huge masses of rock, the needles of the *Dru*, the *Bochard*, and the *Charmoz*. At a distance, the valley and the river divide into two branches, one of which reaches a high mountain named the *Giant's Neck*; the other passes beside the rocks called *les Torasses*. At the opposite extremity of the valley is a slope, facing the valley of Chamouni. This nearly vertical declivity is occupied by that part of the *Mer de Glace* which is called the Glacier *des Bois*. Suppose, then, that a severe winter has taken place; that the river which fills up the valley, its windings and declivities, has been frozen to its very bottom, that the summits of the neighbouring mountains are covered with ice and snow, wherever the levels of the granite rock have been sufficiently horizontal to retain the congealing streams; such is the *Mer de Glace*, and its true character. It is not, as may be conceived, a sea, it is a frozen river, the Rhine if you choose; the *Mer de Glace* will be its stream, and the Glacier *des Bois* its fall at Laufen.

When we had descended to the *Mer de Glace*, its surface, which appeared flat and smooth from the top of the Montanvert, presented an immense number of points and broken parts. These points of ice imitate the different figures of the lofty enclosure of rocks that overhang on all sides: they resemble a *relievo* in white marble of the surrounding mountains.

Let us now speak of mountains in general. There are two aspects under which they may be seen; with clouds and without clouds. These are the two principal characters of the country among the Alps.

With clouds, the scene is more lively; but then such a darkness, and frequently such a confusion prevails, that hardly can objects be distinguished.

The clouds form a most variegated drapery around the rocks. I have observed above Servoz a kind of rocky needle standing upright, bare and wrinkled, clad obliquely by a cloud shaped like a *toga*; the whole might have been taken for the colossal statue of an old Roman. In another place might be seen the cultivated part of the mountain; a long train of clouds intercepted the view towards the summit of this cultivated declivity, whilst above them arose black ramifications of rocks, not unlike the mouths of Chimeras, of Sphinxes, of heads of Anubis', of divers figures of monsters, and of Egyptian deities.

When the clouds are driven by the wind, the mountains seem to run with rapidity behind that moveable curtain. They alternately hide and discover themselves: sometimes, at the opening of a cloud, a cluster of verdure suddenly appears, like an island suspended in the air; sometimes a rock slowly displays itself, little by little, peeping from behind the thick vapour like a phantom. The cheerless traveller hears only the humming wind amid the pine trees, the clashing torrents that run into the glaciers; at intervals the fall of an avalanche, and sometimes the whistle of the terrified marmote, that has discovered the hawk of the Alps soaring in the clouds.

When the sky is cloudless, and the amphitheatre of mountains is displayed to the sight, one single incident is deserving of notice. The heads of the mountains, from the elevated regions to which they rise, offer a sharpness of lines, a precision of plan, and of profile, of which objects in the plain are entirely destitute. These angular summits under the transparent dome of the firmament resemble most superb pieces of natural history; beautiful trees of coral or stalactites, supporting a globe of the purest crystal. The mountaineer fancies among these picturesque shivers the images of objects that are familiar to him;

hence those rocks are called the *Mulets*, the *Charmoz*, or the *Chamois*; hence those appellations borrowed from religion, *les sommets des Croix, le rocher du reposoir, le glacier des pélerins*; simple denominations, which prove, that if man be continually engaged in meditating on his wants, yet he willingly introduces every where the remembrance of objects which conduce to his consolation.

With regard to the trees on the mountains, I shall only mention the pine, the fir, and the larch tree; they being, as I might say, the sole decoration of the Alps.

The shape of the pine tree reminds us of fine architecture; its branches have the air of the pyramid, and its trunk resembles the column. It exhibits also a striking analogy of form to the rocks among which it grows; not infrequently, while standing on the projections and prominences of the mountains, have I mistaken it for long shafts, and needles, disorderly shooting, or starting up.

On the back part of the *Col de Balme*, at the descent of the Glacier of *Trien*, extends a forest of pine, fir, and larch trees, which is far superior to any thing of the kind elsewhere. Every tree in this family of giants has stood for several centuries. This Alpine tribe has a king, which the guides carefully point out to travellers: it is a fir tree fit for the mast of a first-rate man of war. The monarch alone is unblemished, while all his subjects are mutilated; some have lost their heads, others part of their arms; lightning has furrowed the tops of some, whilst the feet of others are scorched by the fires of the herdsmen. I took particular notice of two twins sprung from the same trunk, which raised their heads to the skies. They were equal in height, in shape, and in years; but one was full of life, the other was withered. They brought to my recollection those pathetic lines of Virgil:—

Daucia, Laride Thymberque, simillima proles
Indiscreta suis, gratusque parentibus error:
At nunc dura dedit vobis discrimina Pallas.

"Twin sons of Daucus, offspring resembling each other, Laris and Thymber! even your parents could not distinguish you from one another; you might subject even them to pleasing mistakes! But *Death* has now made a cruel difference between you."

We may add, that the pine announces the solitude and barrenness of the mountain. It is the companion of the poor Savoyard, whose destiny it partakes; like him, it grows and dies unknown, on inaccessible heights, where also posterity is perpetuated, equally unknown. From the larch tree the bees extract that hard and savoury honey which makes such a luscious mixture with the cream and raspberries of the Montanvert. Bucolic poets have sung the murmurs of the pine tree when gentle; but when they are loud they resemble the roaring sea: sometimes fancy hears the raging ocean rolling among the Alps. The odour of the pine tree is aromatic and agreeable; to me especially, it is peculiarly pleasant, since I enjoyed the smell of it at sea, at above twenty leagues distance, from the coast of Virginia. It always, therefore, awakens in my mind the idea of that new world, which balmy breezes announced to me from so far; of that azure sky, of those rich seas, where the fragrance of the forests reached me on the morning gale; and as our recollections are all combined, it also recalls to my mind the regret and expectations which engrossed my attention, when leaning on the side of the ship, I was absorbed in recollecting that native country, which I had forsaken, and thinking on that wilderness whereinto I was entering.

But, at length, to state my own sentiments respecting mountains, I am not afraid to say, that as there can be no beautiful prospect without an horizon of mountains, no spot, when wanting both air and space, can afford an agreeable habitation, nor a prospect gratifying to the eye or to the mind. This must, unavoidably, always be the case amidst encircling mountains. These heavy masses never harmonize with human faculties, or with the weakness of human organs.

An idea of sublimity is attached to mountainous landscapes. This idea, no doubt, is derived from the magnitude of the objects. But if it should be proved that this magnitude, though really extant, is not sensible to the eye, what becomes of the sublime?

The monuments of Nature resemble those produced by Art; to enjoy their beauties, we must occupy the true perspective station; for otherwise the design, the colours, the proportions, every thing vanishes. Within the ranges of mountains, as you are quite close to the object, and the field of vision is too much confined, the dimensions are, necessarily, diminished in their size: this is so true, that we continually err with respect to height and distance. I appeal to travellers:—has Mont-Blanc appeared to them extremely high from the bottom of the valley of Chamouni? An immense lake in the Alps often appears like a small pond; it might be thought that a few steps would arrive at the top of a hill, which, in fact, takes three hours in climbing up: a whole day hardly is long enough for getting out of a passage, the end of which appeared to be only at arm's length. The greatness and grandeur of mountains, then, which is so much vaunted, has nothing real, but the fatigue which it occasions. With regard to the view of the adjacent country, it hardly appears more extensive than ordinary prospects.

Moreover, those mountains which lose their apparent height when the spectator stands too near them, are, nevertheless, so gigantic, that they overpower those objects by which they might be ornamented. Thus, on contrary principles, are diminished at once, in the defiles of the Alps, the whole and the parts. If Nature had made the trees on the mountains a hundred times more lofty than those in the plains; if the streams and the cascades poured torrents one hundred times more extensive, those huge trees, those spreading streams, might produce majestic effects on the widening flanks of ground; but it is not so: the frame of the picture is increased beyond measure, while the rivers, the forests, the villages, and the flocks, retain their common proportions. There is no connection, then, between the whole and a part: between the stage and the scenery. The mountains, moreover, being vertical, become a standing scale by which, in spite of itself, the eye compares the objects which it includes; but which alternately proclaim their littleness when referred to this enormous instrument of mensuration. The loftiest pine trees, for instance, are hardly discernible in the cavity of the vales, where they appear clotted like flakes of soot. The stream of the heaviest rains is but hinted at in those dark and slender woods, by small yellow parallel streaks, and the largest torrents, the most elevated cataracts, look like mere insignificant drippings of water, or grey-blue vapours.

Such as have discovered diamonds, topazes, and emeralds, in the glaciers, were more lucky than myself; my imagination was never adequate to the perception of such treasures. The snow at the foot of the Glacier *des Bois*, mixed with granite dust, appeared to me like a heap of ashes; in several parts of it the *Mer de Glace* might be mistaken for a quarry of lime or gypsum; its chasms alone offer some faint prismatic tints; and when the beds of ice adhere to the rock, they look, at best, like thick bottle-glass.

This white drapery of the Alps is, beside, subject to great inconvenience; by comparison it blackens every surrounding object; even the firmament, the azure colour of which it darkens. Nor imagine that the beautiful accidents of light deflecting from the snow makes amends for this disagreeable effect. The colour which tinges the distant mountains is null to the spectator standing at their feet. The splendour with which the setting sun adorns the summit of the Alps of Savoy is visible solely to the inhabitants of Lausanne. In vain does the traveller in the valley of Chamouni expect to partake of this brilliant spectacle. Above his head he perceives, as through a funnel, a small portion of a harsh azure firmament, without dawn, without sunset. Gloomy spot! where the sun's glorious beams hardly dart at mid-day above a frozen barrier.

In order to make myself more intelligible, may I be permitted to introduce a common place truth. A picture must have a canvas: in Nature, the sky is the canvas of prospects; if the sky be wanting in the back-ground of a landscape, the whole is confused, and void of effect. Now, mountains, when too close, intercept most of the prospect above. There is not air enough around their summits; they overshadow one another, and mutually deflect on each other the darkness which always maintains itself in some cavity of their rocks. Whether the country about the mountains has an unquestionable superiority, we may easily learn by consulting skilful painters. Observe, that artists always place their mountains at a distance, while they offer to the eye a prospect resting on woods or plains.

There is but one accident which does not divest the mountains of their natural grandeur; this is the effect of moonlight. It is the property of this faint light, which is not disturbed by reflections, but maintains one uniform tone, to magnify objects by detaching certain masses, and annihilating that degradation of colours, which connects the different parts of a painting. In this case, the more the outlines of the subjects are free and determined, the more their design appears bold and masterly; and the better does the white colour of the light decide the lines of the shadows. For this reason the grand Roman architecture like the contours of mountains, appears so beautiful by moonlight.

The greatness, and consequently, the kind of sublimity which it creates, vanishes therefore in the interior of mountains; let us examine whether the graceful occurs in a more eminent degree.

In the first place, some are enraptured with the valleys of Switzerland. Yet it must be observed that they appear so delightful only by comparison. True indeed, the eye, tired with wandering over barren flats, or promontories covered with a reddish lichen, rests at last with extacy on verdure and vegetation. But of what does this verdure consist? Of a few poor willows, or of some trifling crops of barley and of oats, that grow with great difficulty, and ripen very late; of some few wild stocks which bear bitter and harsh fruit. If by chance a vine vegetates reluctantly, as it were, on a small spot, having a southern aspect, and carefully sheltered from the north wind you are invited to admire this wonderful fecundity. Do you ascend the neighbouring rocks? The great feature of the mountains, diminish to nothing the miniature of the valley. The peasant's huts are hardly visible, and the cultivated divisions resemble the patterns on a woollen draper's card.

Much is said about the flowers on the mountains, about the violets gathered on the borders of the glaciers, about the strawberries that blush among the snow, &c. These are all hardly visible miracles which produce no effect: colossal statues should not have such imperceptible ornaments.

In short, I was very unfortunate, for in those famous *chalets* which the imagination of J. J. Rousseau has described with such fascination, I could only discover sorry huts filled with dung, and perfumed with the scent of cheese, and of milk, in a state of fermentation. The only inhabitants I saw there, were a few wretched mountaineers, who consider themselves as exiled, and long after the instant when they shall revisit the valley.

Some few little mute birds which flutter from one heap of snow to another, or, now and then a pair of ravens or of hawks, hardly enliven these deserts of stones and snow, where the fall of rain is almost the only motion which salutes your eye. Happy when the interrupted feeble voice of the wood-pecker, the harbinger of storms, is heard through an ancient cluster of fir-trees! And yet, this melancholy indication of life renders you more sensible to the surrounding scene of death. The chamois, the wild goats, and the white rabbit, have been almost totally destroyed; the marmottes themselves are become very scarce, and the little Savoyard is threatened with the entire loss of his treasure. The wild beasts on the top of the Alps have been replaced by herds of cattle, which regret the plains no less than their owners. Reposing in the luxuriant herbage of the *pays de Caux*, they offered a spectacle, at least equally rich, and enjoyed the advantage besides of reminding the observer of the descriptions left by the poets of antiquity.

I shall now conclude by describing the sensations which the mountains create. Well! in my opinion they are extremely painful. I cannot be happy on a spot where I only behold a scene of human labour, and where the utmost exertions of man are not repaid by the ungrateful soil. The mountaineer, who feels his own wretchedness, is more sincere and true than the traveller: he calls the plain *the favoured land*, and will not pretend that rocks bedewed with his sweat, without becoming more fertile, are the most superb and bountiful gifts of Providence. If he is extremely attached to his mountain, this must be ascribed to the wonderful connection which the Almighty has established between our exertions, and the objects from which they originate, and those parts on which we have bestowed them; to the remembrances of our earliest years, to the first emotions of our hearts, to the kindnesses, and even to the unkindnesses we have experienced under the parental roof. The mountaineer living in greater retirement than other men, and whom the habit of hardships has rendered more grave than others, dwells more forcibly on every sensation of his life. The extreme partiality which he manifests towards his native land, must not be attributed to the delights of the spot he inhabits, but to the concentration of his thoughts, and to the limited extent of his wants.

The mountains, it is said, are the resorts of reverie! I doubt it; I doubt whether we can be lost in thought when a walk is a fatigue; when the attention necessarily required to your steps wholly engrosses the mind. The amateur of solitude who would go chimera hunting (*baisseroit aux chimères*, as Lafontaine says), while climbing the Montanvert, might most assuredly fall over some precipice or other, as did the astrologer of old, who pretending to scrutinize the regions above, was thereby prevented from *minding his own feet*.

I am well aware that the poets have wished for woods and valleys, there to converse with the muses. But let us listen to Virgil:

Rura mihi et rigui placeant in vallibus amnes
Flumina amem, sylvasque inglorius.

In the first place, he would like to rove through the country *rura mihi*; he would go in search of gay and agreeable valleys, *vallibus amnes*; he would like rivers, *flumina amem* (but not torrents), and forests where he might continue in a state of obscurity, *sylvasque inglorius*. Now, the forests he wishes for, would consist of stately oaks, elms, and beech-trees, and not of gloomy firs, for he would not have said:

Et INGENTI *ramorum protegat* UMBRA.

"And will overshade my head with its thick "branches."—Now, where must this valley be situated to please him? On a spot where, characterized by pleasing recollections, harmonious names, traditions, derived from the poetic and the historic muses.

——————O ubi campi,
Sperchiusque, et virginibus bacchata lacænis
Taygeta! O qui me gelidis in vallibus Hæmi
Sistat!

"Oh ye Gods! why am I not seated on the banks of the Sperchius! When shall I have it in my power to tread the rich valleys of Hemus! Oh, who will carry me to the lovely Taygeta!"

He would have cared but little for the valley of Chamouni, the glacier of Tawnay, the little and great *Torasse*, the *needle* of the *Dru*, and the rock of *la Tête Noire*.

After having stated what I think unfavourable in mountains, it is but just that I should conclude by saying something in their behalf. I have already observed that they enter, neces-

sarily, into a beautiful landscape; and that they ought to compose the extreme distances of a picture. Their heads, grey with age, their desolated sides, their gigantic members hideous though they be, when contemplated from a situation too near them, are admirable, when surrounded by a horizon replete with vapour, into which their outline melts, while they glow with golden light. We may add, that mountains furnish the sources of rivers; that they are the last asylum of liberty, when slavery stalks around; and that they form a substantial entrenchment against the fury of invasion, and the calamities of war.

To the Editor of the LITERARY PANORAMA.

Sir,

I do not know whether it was the intention of that department of your work, which you denominate "Observanda Externa," to afford subjects for your correspondents to write on, but I must acknowledge that I have considered some of the articles comprised under that title as proper for such a purpose. Among others, the mention of the seizure of the bells of Viterbo, by the troops of Rome, in the 16th century, Panorama, p. 413, led my thoughts to the consideration of bells, their offices and services, as employed by mankind with various intentions; and, with due deference to the Abbé Cancellieri, I think the subject may suit the Literary Panorama. Having an opportunity of recurring to a learned article on this subject, in the second volume of Bronzes, among the Antiquities of Herculaneum, I have both abstracted it, and augmented it, after my own manner; which I mention, lest your readers should think the worse of the original, by reason of my imperfect representation of it; or of my knowledge, give me leave to say, on detecting my variations from it.

The use of Bells divides into, 1. the religious—2. the civil, use of them. As the first mention which we have of this article is for a sacred purpose, I shall place first the religious use of this utensil, reserving the civil for a second paper.

1. The earliest employment of Bells which I recollect is, that of their forming a part of the grand pontifical dress, worn on days of public ceremony by Aaron, Exod. xxviii. 33. These were to be of *gold*, and their sound was to be heard when the High Priest entered the sanctuary of the Lord, "that he die not." From this expression we are naturally led to infer, that the idea of *preservation*, from evil, even death, was attached to these bells; and that, although there could be no truly *preservative virtue* in the tingling of a number of small bells from the bottom of a robe, yet there was a meaning attached to it, and it was intended by way of honour to the sanctuary, or to some object therein. This idea of *protection*, or *preservation*, we shall find generally connected with bells. There can be little doubt but this part of the High Priest's dress was continued to succeeding ages; yet there is not, that I recollect, any later mention of bells among the religious implements of the Hebrews: they were, we know, hung to the necks of horses and camels, but not generally with a religious intention. If we turn to the Heathen, we find repeated notice of this article. The priests of the Syrian Goddess, according to Lucian (De Dea Syria, 29.) appended bells to a high *pole*, which was situated in the front of their temple, and to which they addressed prayers, and presented offerings. The priests of Proserpine, at Athens, when they designed to invocate their goddess, rang a bell, as we learn from the Scholiast on Theocritus, *Id.* ii. 36. And this is still a custom in the East, in Siam, &c. where the worshipper deposits his offering before the temple, rings a little hand-bell which he finds ready at the place, and, after a certain number of tinglings, retires, leaving his donation to the care of the deity. Bells were also placed at the Oracle of Dodona, and at Delphos: these were of bronze. Bells were used in lustrations, and, in short, they were of general use, wherever *sanctification* and *purification* were required. This is verified by many antique marbles. They were used at funerals, and were considered as driving away evil spirits from about the dying, (Ovid, Fast. v. 441.); and for this reason some have supposed, that they were appended to the triumphal car; because their sound was understood to avert the effects of those truly malignant spirits, envy, and an evil eye. Zonaras, indeed, tells us, that to the triumphal car hung a bell and a whip; adding, that this was intended to remind the triumphant hero of the versatility of fortune, and the possibility of his being reduced from that exalted station to slavery itself, hinted at by the whip; or to death, perhaps an ignominious death, indicated by the bell. But this appears to be a refinement, not in the contemplation of those who devised this incident. It appears rather to have been, as already stated, of the same intention as the *bulla*, which was worn at the breast of him who triumphed, expressly for protection, as we read in Macrobius, *Sat.* i. 6. It has been thought that, for the same reason, the conqueror sacrificed in the capitol at Rome, to Nemesis, a goddess whose office it was to punish pride, and those who forget themselves through haughtiness; whence the admonition, *Respice post te: hominem te memento*, as Tertullian transmits it, *Apolog.* 33. Certainly, a man can never stand in greater need of this advice: "Look behind

thee; remember thou art a man," at any time, than at the period of his triumph.

Thus we see that bells have been used to accompany man at his lowest estate, and at his highest; the day of his burial, and the day of his triumph; but the idea of *preservation* combines with both instances; and it was equally prudent and necessary to divert the malevolence of envy from the victorious conqueror, as to disperse invisible agents of evil from the procession which conveyed the remains of a mortal to their last home. In what degree these sentiments are still retained in Italy, and under the sanction of the church of Rome, the following account of the baptism of a bell, at Veletri, may inform us.

"The bell was placed at the lower end of the body of the church, hanging on two gudgeons, covered with rich hangings of violet-coloured velvet, the bell itself accoutred with a kind of robe of the same. There were two theatres built on each side of it for the musicians, and an amphitheatre for the ladies, who were to be present at the ceremony. The pillars and walls of the church were richly adorned with silk and pictures. Near the bell was erected an altar, upon which lay a white satin robe that was to be put upon the bell, when it should be baptized, with a great garland of choice flowers; a censer, and a vessel with holy water: round the altar were rich velvet elbow-chairs for the priests who were to perform the ceremony; over against it was a throne, most magnificently hung, for the god-father and god-mother of the bell. About 10 o'clock the company came, and having taken their places, the officiating bishop struck up the first psalm, which was continued by the music. After the psalms were ended, the bishop began the blessing of the holy water, to sanctify it in the 1st place, that afterwards it might sanctify the bell. This benediction being finished, the bishop and priests dipt spunges into the water, with which they rubbed over the bell, from the top to the bottom, within and without, repeating abundance of prayers.—*Ut hoc Tintinnabulum, cœlesti Benedictione, perfundere, purificare, sanctificare & consecrare digneris.* "That thou wouldest be pleased to rinse, purify, sanctify, and consecrate this bell, with thy heavenly benediction." The bell being thus well washed, they dried it with clean napkins; and the bishop having taken the vial of holy oil, he therewith anointed the cross of metal on the top of the bell, in order to "make the devils flee at the ringing of it." *Ut hoc audientes Tintinnabulum tremiscant & fugiant, ante Crucis in eo depictum vexillum.* He afterwards made seven other crosses with this oil, on the outside of the bell, and one on the inside. This done, he made the god-father and god-mother draw near, and demanded of them in Italian, Whether they were the persons who presented this bell to be consecrated? Having answered that they did; he then asked them, Whether the metal of the bell, and the workmanship of it, had been paid for to the artificers? They answered, Yes. [This demand is made, because it hath sometimes happened, that for want of payment, the workmen have seized and fetched away their bells, and melted them down to profane uses.] His third question was, Whether they believed all that the Catholic, Apostolic, Roman Church believes, concerning the holiness and virtue of bells? The answer was affirmative also. Lastly, he demanded what name they desired should be put upon the bell? To which the lady answered, *Mary*. Then the bishop took two great silk ribbands, which had been fastened to the gudgeons of the bell, and gave each of them one in their hands, and pronounced, with a loud voice, the words of consecration: *Consecretur & Sanctificetur Signum istud, in nomine Patris & Filii & Spiritus Sancti, Amen.* "Let this Sign be consecrated and sanctified in the name of the Father, Son, and Holy Ghost, Amen." Then turning himself to the people, he said, The name of this bell is *Mary*. Afterwards he took the censer, and censed it on the outside round about, and afterwards under the bell, filling it with sacred fumes, and repeating prayers and invocations, that it might be filled with the dew of the Holy Spirit. *Tu hoc Tintinnabulum Spiritus Sancti rore perfunde, ut ante sonitum illius semper fugiat Bonarum Inimicus.* "Do thou besprinkle this bell with the dew of thy Holy Spirit, that at the sound of it, the enemy of all good may always take his flight." The office was carried on with a great number of psalms; the music all the while performing wonders. The bishop, to close the ceremony, arrayed the bell with the white robe of a proselyte or convert, and with a loud voice read the Gospel of *Mary* and *Martha*. The bishop then gave his benediction; and the priests received great presents from the god-father and god-mother.

The doctrine of the Church of Rome concerning bells is, first, that they have merit, and pray God for the living and the dead. Secondly, that they produce devotion in the hearts of believers. Thirdly, that they drive away storms and tempests; and, fourthly, that they drive away devils."

I am, Sir, yours, &c. Q.

To what our correspondent has communicated, we add a few examples of the mottos which have characterized bells, usually with some reference to their names. On one, called Gabriel, was this motto,

Lo! I proclaim unto you glad tidings:
Glad tidings unto all people!

Another, named Michael, was thus inscribed:

Make a loud noise unto God;
Praise him with a solemn sound!

A third proclaimed its services thus:

Sabbato pango:
Solennia clango:
Funera plango.

The sacred day I venerate:
Solemn occasions gratulate:
And mournful funerals consecrate.

Or thus:

The Sabbath day I mark with sacred zeal;
At joyful seasons, ring a merry peal;
At funerals, slow and solemn sorrows feel.

Another, dedicated no doubt to the Virgin, thus addressed its ejaculations to her.

Protege precor, pia,
Quos convoco, Sancta Maria!

Protect the pious kneeling at thy shrine,
Who, Holy Mary! seek thy aid divine!

But, as characteristic a motto as any in our recollection is,

FEAR GOD! AND HONOUR THE KING!

EAST-INDIA COLLEGE AT HERTFORD.

Report of Committee, December 23, 1806.

The Committee take leave to acquaint the Court, that in pursuance of the 6th Clause of the Code of Regulations for the Government of the College, which was approved in Court the 27th December 1805, they proceeded to the East-India College at Hertford, on the 19th instant, attended by several Members of the Court of Directors, the Assistant Secretary, Dr. Wilkins, the Oriental Visitor, and the Clerk to this Committee, for the purpose of closing the first Public Examinations of the Students, which began on the 8th, and assigning the Meda's and Prizes as recommended by the Principal, and agreed to by the Committee—that on the arrival of the Committee at the College, being received by the Principal and the several Professors, they proceeded to the Great Room, where the Students were previously assembled, and commenced the examinations of the last day—that the following Prizes were then awarded to the under-mentioned Students, viz.

The Gold Medals to

1st Class.—Mr. Sotheby, for Oriental Learning; Mr. Fraser, sen. Classical Learning; Mr. M'Kenzie, Mathematics and Natural Philosophy, History, Political Economy, and Law.*

The Books value Five Guineas to

2d Class.—Mr. Heath, for Oriental Learning, Classical Learning, Mathematics and Natural Philosophy.

The Books value Three Guineas to

3d Class.—Mr. Boldero, for Oriental Learning; Mr. Stockwell, Classical Learning, Mathematics, and Natural Philosophy.

That the Principal then produced, agreeably to the 6th clause of the Code before-mentioned, the Lists of the Students arranged by the respective Professors, and sanctioned by himself, according to their several merits in the four Departments of

1. Oriental Learning.
2. Classical Learning.
3. Mathematics and Natural Philosophy.
4. History, Law, and Political Economy.

That in conformity with the Regulations above-mentioned, the Committee submit the said Lists, annexed to this Report, as well as another List in Theology, Natural Jurisprudence, and the Evidences of Revelation, laid before the Committee by the Principal, to the Court's inspection, and in so doing have great satisfaction in acquainting them, that the examinations of the Students have been highly gratifying to the Committee, creditable to the Students, honourable to the Principal and Professors, and augur the most flattering prospect of realizing all the benefits hoped for, and expected to be derived from, the establishment of the East-India College.

In Oriental Learning.

1*st Class.*—Messrs. Sotheby,* [Fane, M'Kenzie,] [Hunter, Molony,] [Smalley, Wellesley,] [Bird, Fraser, sen.] Hon. D. Ruthven, Hon. William Leslie Melville, Mr. Nisbet.

2*d Class.*—(Oriental Department). — Messrs. Heath,† Curtis, [Ainslie, Sullivan,] Whish, Belli, Bayley, Babington, Campbell, Russell.

3*d Class.*—Messrs. Boldero,‡ Farish, [Scott, Stockwell,] Lewin, Hollond, Dickinson, Fraser, jun. [Forde, Rogers,] Oakes.

In writing the Naskh-talik and Deva nágari Characters.

Messrs. Sotheby, Fane, Hon. D. Ruthven, M'Kenzie, Heath, Belli Wellesley, Babington, Whish, Bird Hunter, Curtis, Smalley, Hon. Wm. Leslie Melville, Campbell, Smith, Scott, Molony, Ainslie, Farish, Lewin, Hollond, Nisbet, Forde, Dickinson, Boldero, Stockwell, Russell, Rogers, Bayley, Oakes.

In the Department of Classical and General Literature.

1*st Class.*—Messrs. Fraser, sen.* M'Kenzie, Bird, Molony, Sotheby, Wellesley, Hon. W. L. Melville, Smalley, [Hunter, Nisbet,] Fane.

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* Gold Medals were awarded also to Mr. Bird and Mr. Molony, on account of their extraordinary merit in the different Departments, although not strictly entitled thereto by the Code of Regulations.

The Students in the several Lists, whose names are distinguished thus *, are entitled to a Gold Medal.

Those with this distinction †, to a present of Books, value five guineas.

Those with ‡ prefixed, Books to the value of three guineas.

The Students whose names are connected within crotchets, are considered as of equal merit, and therefore occur in the order of the Alphabet.

2*d Class.*—Messrs. Heath,† Sullivan, [Babington, Russell, Whish,] [Ainslie, Curtis] Bayley, Campbell, Belli, [Forde, Scott.]

3*d Class*—Messrs. Stockwell,‡ Farish, Hollond, [Boldero, Rogers, Smith,] Lewin, Fraser, jun. Dickinson, Oakes.

In the Department of Mathematics and Natural Philosophy.

1*st Class.*—Messrs. M'Kenzie,* [Fraser, sen. Molony,] [Hunter, Sotheby,] [Bird, Smalley,] [Hon. W. L. Melville, Nisbet, Wellesley,] [Fane, Hon. D. Ruthven.]

2*d Class.*—Messrs. Heath,† Ainslie, Babington, [Campbell, Sullivan,] [Curtis, Russell, Whish.] Belli, [Bayley, Forde, Scott.]

3*d Class.*—Messrs. Stockwell,‡ [Boldero, Farish, Hollond, Smith,] [Dickinson, Fraser, jun. Lewin, Oakes, Rogers.]

In History, Political Economy, and Law, Mr. M'Kenzie*.—*History*, Messrs. Bird,* Fraser, and Molony.—*Political Economy*, Messrs. Bird, Molony, Fraser, sen. Sotheby, [Hon. W. L. Melville, Wellesley,] [Hon. D. Ruthven, Smalley,] Nisbet, [Fane, Hunter.]—*Law*, Messrs. Molony*, Fraser, and Bird.

In Theology, Natural Jurisprudence, and the Evidences of Revelation.

1*st Class.*—Messrs. M'Kenzie, Molony, Fraser, sen. Bird, Sotheby, Smalley, Hon. W. L. Melville, Wellesley, Nisbet, Hunter, Fane, Hon. D. Ruthven.

2*d Class.*—Messrs. Heath, Sullivan, Babington, Campbell, Russell, Belli, Whish, Bayley, [Ainslie, Curtis.]

3*d Class*—Messrs. Hollond Fraser, jun. Stockwell Farish, Lewin, Scott, Forde, Rogers, Oakes, [Boldero Dickinson.]

After the Medals and other Prizes were awarded, according to the arrangements in the foregoing Lists, a Declamation was delivered by Mr. M'Kenzie, containing an inquiry, "Whether the ascendancy gained by Philip of Macedon over the Grecian States, were beneficial or detrimental to Greece at large?"—By Mr. Fraser, sen. on the question, "Whether the conduct of Cicero were justifiable in submitting to Cæsar?"—By Mr. Molony, in defence of the opposite conduct of Cato:—and after the recital of a poetical composition by Mr. Bird, on the Conquest of India by Alexander; the Students severally read select passages from Persian authors, and exhibited various specimens of their writing in the Oriental Characters above-mentioned.

The Principal stated to the Committee, that he had attended the Examinations at the Preparatory School at Hailey-bury, and that the result thereof is highly flattering to the Master, favourable to the Pupils, and promises a future supply of Students well qualified for the College.

AUTHENTIC NARRATIVE OF THE DEATH OF LORD NELSON.

[Extracted from Dr. Beatty's Work, entitled Authentic Narrative of the Death of Lord Nelson: with the Circumstances preceding, attending, and subsequent to, that Event; the professional Report of his Lordship's Wound; and several interesting Anecdotes. With an admirable Portrait of his Lordship, and a Plate representing the wound, and Course of the Ball.]

It was from the Redoubtable that Lord Nelson received his mortal wound. About fifteen minutes past one o'clock, which was in the heat of the engagement, he was walking the quarter-deck with Captain Hardy, and in the act of turning near the hatchway with his face towards the stern of the Victory, when the fatal ball was fired from the enemy's mizen-top; which, from the situation of the two ships (lying on board of each other), was brought just abaft, and rather below, the Victory's main-yard, and of course not more than fifteen yards distant from that part of the deck where his Lordship stood. The ball struck the epaulette on his left shoulder, and penetrated his chest. He fell with his face on the deck. Captain Hardy, who was on his right, on turning round, saw the Serjeant-Major (Secker) of Marines with two seamen raising him from the deck; where he had fallen, on the same spot on which a little before, his Secretary had breathed his last, with whose blood his Lordship's clothes were much soiled. Captain Hardy expressed a hope that he was not severely wounded; to which the gallant Chief replied: "They have done for me at last, Hardy." "I hope not," answered Captain Hardy. "Yes," replied his Lordship, "my back-bone is shot through."

Captain Hardy ordered the seamen to carry the Admiral to the cock-pit. While the men were carrying him down the ladder from the middle-deck, his Lordship observed, that the tiller-ropes were not yet replaced, and desired one of the Midshipmen stationed there to go upon the quarter-deck and remind Captain Hardy of that circumstance, and request that new ones should be immediately rove. Having delivered this order, he took his handkerchief from his pocket and covered his face with it, that he might be conveyed to the cockpit at this crisis unnoticed by the crew.

Several wounded Officers, and about forty men, were likewise carried to the Surgeon for assistance just at this time, and some others had breathed their last during their conveyance below. Among the latter were

Lieut. Wm. Andrew Ram, and Mr. Whipple, Captain's Clerk. The Surgeon had just examined these two Officers, and found that they were dead, when his attention was arrested by several of the wounded calling to him, "Mr. Beatty, Lord Nelson is here: Mr. Beatty, the Admiral is wounded." The Surgeon now, on looking round, saw the handkerchief fall from his Lordship's face, when the stars on his coat, which had also been covered by it, appeared. Mr. Burke the Purser, and the Surgeon, ran immediately to the assistance of his Lordship, and took him from the arms of the seamen who had carried him below. In conveying him to one of the Midshipmen's births, they stumbled, but recovered themselves without falling. Lord Nelson then inquired who were supporting him; and when the Surgeon informed him, his Lordship replied, "Ah, Mr. Beatty! you can do nothing for me. I have but a short time to live: my back is shot through." The Surgeon said, "he hoped the wound was not so dangerous as his Lordship imagined, and that he might still survive long to enjoy his glorious victory." The Rev. Dr. Scott, who had been absent in another part of the cockpit administering lemonade to the wounded, now came instantly to his Lordship; and in the anguish of grief wrung his hands, and said: "Alas, Beatty, how prophetic you were!" alluding to the apprehensions expressed by the Surgeon for his Lordship's safety previous to the battle.

His Lordship was laid upon a bed, stripped of his cloaths, and covered with a sheet. While this was effecting, he said to Dr. Scott, "Doctor, I told you so. Doctor, I am gone;" and, after a short pause, he added in a low voice, "I have to leave Lady Hamilton, and my adopted daughter Horatia, as a legacy to my country." The Surgeon then examined the wound, assuring his Lordship that he would not put him to much pain in endeavouring to discover the course of the ball; which he soon found had penetrated deep into the chest, and had probably lodged in the spine. This being explained to his Lordship, he replied, "he was confident his back was shot through." The back was then examined externally, but without any injury being perceived; on which his Lordship was requested by the Surgeon to make him acquainted with all his sensations. He replied, that "he felt a gush of blood every minute within his breast: that he had no feeling in the lower part of his body: and that his breathing was difficult, and attended with very severe pain about that part of the spine where he was confident that the ball had struck;" for, said he, "I felt it break my back." These symptoms, but more particularly the gush of blood which his Lordship complained of, together with the state of his pulse, indicated to the Surgeon the hopeless situation of the case; but, till after the victory was ascertained and announced to his Lordship, the true nature of his wound was concealed by the Surgeon from all on board, except Captain Hardy, Dr. Scott, Mr. Burke, and Messrs. Smith and Westemburg, the Assistant Surgeons.

The Victory's crew cheered whenever they observed an enemy's ship surrender. On one of these occasions, Lord Nelson anxiously inquired what was the cause of it; when Lieutenant Pasco, who lay wounded at some distance from his Lordship, raised himself up, and told him that another ship had struck, which appeared to give him much satisfaction. He now felt an ardent thirst; and frequently called for drink, and to be fanned with paper, making use of these words: "Fan, fan," and "drink, drink." This he continued to repeat, when he wished for drink, or the refreshment of cool air, till a very few minutes before he expired. Lemonade, and wine and water, were given to him occasionally. He evinced great solicitude for the event of the battle, and fears for the safety of his friend Captain Hardy. Dr. Scott and Mr. Burke used every argument they could suggest, to relieve his anxiety. Mr. Burke told him, "the enemy were decisively defeated, and that he hoped his Lordship would still live to be himself the bearer of the joyful tidings to his country." He replied, "It is nonsense, Mr. Burke, to suppose I can live: my sufferings are great, but they will all be soon over." Dr. Scott entreated his Lordship "not to despair of living;" and said, "he trusted that Divine Providence would restore him once more to his dear country and friends."—"Ah, Doctor!" replied his Lordship, "it is all over; it is all over."

Many messages were sent to Captain Hardy, by the Surgeon, requesting his attendance on his Lordship, who became impatient to see him, and often exclaimed: "Will no one bring Hardy to me? He must be killed: he is surely destroyed." The Captain's Aide-de-camp, Mr. Bulkeley, now came below, and stated that "circumstances respecting the fleet required Captain Hardy's presence on deck, but that he would avail himself of the first favourable moment to visit his Lordship." On hearing him deliver this message to the Surgeon, his Lordship inquired who had brought it. Mr. Burke answered, "It is Mr. Bulkeley, my Lord."—"It is his voice," replied his Lordship: he then said to the young gentleman, "Remember me to your father."

An hour and ten minutes however elapsed, from the time of his Lordship's being wounded, before Captain Hardy's first subsequent

interview with him; the particulars of which are as follow: They shook hands affectionately, and Lord Nelson said: "Well, Hardy, How goes the battle? How goes the day with us?" — "Very well, my Lord," replied Captain Hardy: "we have got twelve or fourteen of the enemy's ships in our possession; but five of their van have tacked, and shew an intention of bearing down upon the Victory. I have therefore called two or three of our fresh ships round us, and have no doubt of giving them a drubbing."—"I hope," said his Lordship, "none of *our* ships have struck, Hardy."—"No, my Lord," replied Captain Hardy; "there is no fear of that." Lord Nelson then said: "I am a dead man, Hardy. I am going fast: it will be all over with me soon. Come nearer to me. Pray let my dear Lady Hamilton have my hair, and all other things belonging to me." Mr. Burke was about to withdraw at the commencement of this conversation; but his Lordship, perceiving his intention, desired he would remain. Captain Hardy observed, that "he hoped Mr. Beatty could yet hold out some prospect of life."—"Oh! no," answered his Lordship, "it is impossible. My back is shot through. Beatty will tell you so." Captain Hardy then returned on deck, and at parting shook hands with his revered friend and Commander.

His Lordship now requested the Surgeon, who had been previously absent a short time attending Mr. Rivers, to return to the wounded, and give his assistance to such of them as he could be useful to; "for," said he, "you can do nothing for me." The Surgeon assured him that the Assistant Surgeons were doing every thing that could be effected for those unfortunate men; but on his Lordship's several times repeating his injunction to that purpose, he left him surrounded by Doctor Scott, Mr. Burke, and two of his Lordship's domestics. After the Surgeon had been absent a few minutes attending Lieutenants Peake and Reeves of the Marines, who were wounded, he was called by Doctor Scott to his Lordship, who said: "Ah, Mr. Beatty! I have sent for you to say, what I forgot to tell you before, that all power of motion or feeling below my breast is gone; and *you*," continued he, "very well *know* I can live but a short time." The emphatic manner in which he pronounced these last words, left no doubt in the Surgeon's mind, that he adverted to the case of a man who had some months before received a mortal injury of the spine on board the Victory, and had laboured under similar privations of sense and muscular motion. The case had made a great impression on Lord Nelson: he was anxious to know the cause of such symptoms, which was accordingly explained to him; and he now appeared to apply the situation and fate of this man to himself. The Surgeon answered, "My Lord, you told me so before:" but he now examined the extremities, to ascertain the fact; when his Lordship said, "Ah, Beatty! I am too certain of it; Scott and Burke have tried it already. *You know* I am gone." The Surgeon replied: "My Lord, unhappily for our country, nothing can be done for you;" and having made this declaration, he was so much affected, that he turned round and withdrew a few steps to conceal his emotions. His Lordship said: "I know it. I feel something rising in my left breast," putting his hand on his left side, "which tells me I am gone."—Drink was recommended liberally, and Dr. Scott and Mr. Burke fanned him with paper He often exclaimed, "God be praised, I have done my duty;" and upon the Surgeon's inquiring whether his pain was still very great, he declared, "it continued so severe, that he wished he was dead." Yet," said he, in a lower voice, "one would like to live a little longer, too;" and, after a pause of a few minutes, he added in the same tone, "What would become of poor Lady Hamilton, if she knew my situation."

The Surgeon, finding it impossible to render his Lordship any further assistance, left him, to attend Lieutenant Bligh, Messrs. Smith and Westphall, midshipmen, and some seamen, recently wounded. Captain Hardy now came to the cockpit to see his Lordship a second time, which was after an interval of about fifty minutes from the conclusion of his first visit. Before he quitted the deck, he sent Lieutenant Hills to acquaint Admiral Collingwood with the lamentable circumstance of Lord Nelson's being wounded. Lord Nelson and Captain Hardy shook hands again: and while the Captain retained his Lordship's hand, he congratulated him even in the arms of death on his brilliant victory; "which," he said, "was complete; though he did not know how many of the enemy were captured, as it was impossible to perceive every ship distinctly. He was certain, however, of fourteen or fifteen having surrendered." His Lordship answered, "That is well, but I bargained for twenty:" and then emphatically exclaimed, "*Anchor*, Hardy, *anchor!*" To this the Captain replied: "I suppose, my Lord, Admiral Collingwood will now take upon himself the direction of affairs."—"Not while I live, I hope, Hardy!" cried the dying Chief; and at that moment endeavoured ineffectually to raise himself from the bed. "No," added he; "do *you* anchor, Hardy." Captain Hardy then said, "Shall *we* make the signal Sir?"—"Yes," answered his Lordship, "for if I live, I'll anchor." The energetic manner in which he uttered these his last orders

to Captain Hardy, accompanied with his efforts to raise himself, evinced his determination never to resign the command while he retained the exercise of his transcendant faculties, and that he expected Captain Hardy still to carry into effect the suggestions of his exalted mind; a sense of his duty overcoming the pains of death. He then told Captain Hardy, "he felt that in a few minutes he should be no more;" adding in a low tone, "Don't throw me overboard, Hardy." The Captain answered, "Oh! no, certainly not."—"Then," replied his Lordship, "you know what to do:* and," continued he, "take care of my dear Lady Hamilton, Hardy; take care of poor Lady Hamilton. Kiss me, Hardy." The Captain now knelt down, and kissed his cheek; when his Lordship said, "Now I am satisfied. Thank God, I have done my duty." Captain Hardy stood for a minute or two in silent contemplation: he then knelt down again, and kissed his Lordship's forehead. His Lordship said: "Who is that?" The Captain answered: "It is Hardy;" to which his Lordship replied, "God bless you, Hardy!" After this affecting scene Captain Hardy withdrew, and returned to the quarter-deck, having spent about eight minutes in this his last interview with his dying friend.

Lord Nelson now desired Mr. Chevalier, his Steward, to turn him upon his right side; which being effected, his Lordship said: "I wish I had not left the deck, for I shall soon be gone." He afterwards became very low; his breathing was oppressed, and his voice faint. He said to Doctor Scott: "Doctor, I have *not* been a *great* sinner;" and after a short pause, "*Remember*, that I leave Lady Hamilton and my daughter Horatia as a legacy to my country: and," added he, "never forget Horatia." His thirst now increased; and he called for "Drink, drink," "Fan, fan," and "Rub, rub:" addressing himself in the last case to Doctor Scott, who had been rubbing his Lordship's breast with his hand, from which he found some relief. These words he spoke in a very rapid manner, which rendered his articulation difficult: but he every now and then, with evident increase of pain, made a greater effort with his vocal powers, and pronounced distinctly these last words: "Thank God, I have done my duty;" and this great sentiment he continued to repeat as long as he was able to give it utterance.

His Lordship became speechless in about fifteen minutes after Captain Hardy left him. Doctor Scott and Mr. Burke, who had all along sustained the bed under his shoulders (which raised him in nearly a semi-recumbent posture, the only one that was supportable to him), forebore to disturb him by speaking to him; and when he had remained speechless about five minutes, his Lordship's Steward went to the Surgeon, who had been a short time occupied with the wounded in another part of the cockpit, and stated his apprehensions that his Lordship was dying. The Surgeon immediately repaired to him, and found him on the verge of dissolution. He knelt down by his side, and took up his hand, which was cold, and the pulse gone from the wrist. On the Surgeon's feeling his forehead, which was likewise cold, his Lordship opened his eyes, looked up, and shut them again. The Surgeon again left him, and returned to the wounded who required his assistance; but was not absent five minutes when the Steward announced to him, that "he believed his Lordship had expired." The Surgeon returned, and found that the report was but too well founded: his Lordship had breathed his last at thirty minutes past four o'clock; at which period Dr. Scott was in the act of rubbing his Lordship's breast, and Mr. Burke supporting the bed under his shoulders.

From the time of his Lordship's being wounded, till his death, a period of about two hours and forty-five minutes elapsed; but a knowledge of the decisive victory which was gained, he acquired of Captain Hardy within the first hour-and-a-quarter of this period. A partial cannonade, however, was still maintained, in consequence of the enemy's running ships passing the British at different points; and the last distant guns that were fired at their van ships that were making off, were heard a minute or two before his Lordship expired.

* Alluding to some wishes previously expressed by his Lordship to Captain Hardy respecting the place of his interment.

PRIZE CATTLE.—SMITHFIELD CLUB.

The *Smithfield Club*, instituted in 1798, for encouraging the economic feeding of animals of the best kinds for the London market, at their late meetings, during the shew of fat cattle, determined on a material alteration of their premiums for oxen or steers, in consequence of the Hereford breed of those animals having of late years carried off so large a portion of the six prizes annually given, for the best oxen of different weights, &c. without distinction of breeds, as probably to discourage other valuable breeds. For the ensuing year, six prizes of 20 guineas each are offered for oxen or steers of the weight of 180 stone or upwards, of each of the following breeds, viz. Hereford, long-horned, short-horned, Sussex or Kent, Devon, and any mixed breed; with an additional prize of 10 guineas for the best ox or

steer exhibited in claim of the above six prizes. For the convenience of graziers, &c. attending Smithfield Market, printed conditions, &c. of the premiums of the next shew, are left for distribution with Mr. Mitchell, draper, No. 7, Cloth-Fair, near the Market. Mr. Arthur Young having resigned the offices of Secretary and Treasurer to the Club, Mr. John Farey and Mr. Paul Giblett were elected thereto. Thirty-one new members were ballotted for, and admitted. Lord William Russel presided, and will continne so to do, while his noble brother continues in his government of Ireland.

At the meeting of the *Smithfield Club*, held at Freemasons' Tavern on the 15th December, 1806, Lord William Russel in the Chair, several prizes were publicly adjudged to the owners of such of the fat cattle exhibited in Mr. Sadler's yard, Goswell-street, as had, in the opinion of five gentlemen appointed to examine them, improved the most in condition, proportionably to the quantity of food consumed in their fattening. The following are the correct particulars, since furnished to the Secretary of the Club, by the Butchers who killed the prize animals, of the weights of meat and of offals.

Prize Oxen, &c.

	Beef. lb.	Loose Fat. lb.	Hide & Horns. lb.	Head. lb.	Feet. lb.
Mr. John Westcar's dark-red Hereford Ox, fed on grass, hay, and linseed-cakes - -	1835	229	130	56	37
Do —— light-red Hereford Ox, grass, hay, and turnips - - - - - - -	1232	120	133	40	27
Mr. John Edmonds' red Hereford Ox, grass and hay - - - - - - - - - - -	1236	139	88	48	24
Mr. Samuel Chandler's brown Devon Ox, grass, hay, and Swedish turnips - - -	958	139	97	37	23
Mr. John Westcar's yellow Hereford Ox, grass, hay, and turnips - - - - - -	1109	168	117	44	24
Mr. Samuel Chandler's brindled half-bred Devon Steer, grass, hay, and oil-cake -	1032	134	93	35	24
Mr. Joseph Lucas' red and white short-horned Cow, grass, hay, and oil-cake -	1386	200	105	47	32

Prize Sheep.

		Mutton & Head. lb.	Loose Fat lb.	Skin. lb.	Entrails, &c. lb.	Live Weight. lb.
Mr. Lechmere's one year old Leicester and Ryland Wethers, fed on grass and turnips - - -	No. 1	121	14	14	22	171
	2	125	11	16	21	173
	3	127	12	21	22	182
Mr. John Edmond's two-years old new Leicester Wethers, grass, hay, and turnips - - - - -	No. 1	170	22	21	29	242
	2	188	16	23	29	256
	3	166	17	19	23	225
Mr. Henry King's, jun. two-year-old South-Down Wethers, grass only - - - - - - - - -	No. 1	95	14	12	25	146
	2	101	14	15	24	154
	3	94	14	14	22	144

Prize Pigs.

	Pork & Head. lb.	Loose Fat. lb.	Feet. lb.	Entrails, &c. lb.	Live Weight. lb.
Mr. George Dodd's spay'd Suffolk Sow, 23 months old, fed on barley and pea-meal	420	13	2	38	473
His Royal Highness the Duke of York's Spanish and Chinese Pig, 10 months old, barley and pea-meal - - - - -	218	22	2	34	276

PARLIAMENTARY HISTORY.

The first Session of the third Parliament of the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland.—47. GEO. III.

CHAP. I.

Discussion on the late Negociation with France, in both Houses.

THE proceedings of Parliament are so essential to a knowledge of the political history of this country, that, to be ignorant of them, is to be unacquainted with the strength and resources of the state, with the conduct and intentions of government, and with our relations of peace or war with foreign powers. There is no individual so humble, so inconsequential, in his life and pursuits, as to be uninterested in these proceedings. From the general importance, therefore, which attaches to this species of information, it is our wish, as far as our limits admit, to present a sort of parliamentary *coup d'œil*. Omitting the details of debate, &c. it will be our object to present an historical sketch, in which, without descending to particulars, we shall endeavour to preserve the essence of all that is requisite to be known by the general reader.

The opening of the present Parliament, with the royal speech by commission, we have given, Panorama, p. 111. The papers relative to the late negociation with France, (vide p. 873,) which were laid before Parliament Dec. 22, 1806, were taken into consideration, in the House of Lords, Jan. 2, 1807; and, in the House of Commons, on the 5th.——In the upper House, Lord Grenville, after zealously vindicating the conduct of the British government, moved: an humble address to his Majesty, "to assure him that this House has taken into serious consideration, those papers relative to the late negociation, and see with gratitude, that he has employed every means to restore the blessing of peace, in a manner consistent with the interests and glory of his people, and, with an observance of that good faith with our allies, which this country is bound to retain inviolate. That while we lament that by the ambition and the avarice of our enemy, these laudable endeavours to restore tranquillity to his kingdom, have been frustrated, we beg leave to assure his Majesty, that no exertion shall be wanting on our part to support and assist him, in the adoption of such measures as may yet be found necessary, either for the restoration of peace, or to meet the various exigencies of the war in this most important crisis."

Lord Grenville observed, that there were very few instances, in which the papers presented to Parliament entered into such lengthened detail on particular points, as the present. All that had passed upon the business had not indeed been stated; but it was evident, that it might have been inconsistent, not only with regard to the interests of our allies, but to our own, to give farther particulars. In the last war, it was found to have been the means of creating great difficulties in effecting an amiable accommodation. He thought, however, that the papers now presented furnished ample grounds for voting the address proposed.——His Lordship observed, that, it was unnecessary for him to argue, as a general principle, the propriety of pursuing the attainment of peace. No apology therefore was necessary, for a desire to obtain such a blessing, or to ascertain whether it were practicable. There were conditions, in which nations might be placed, which might render peace worthy of being purchased with considerable sacrifices; and such sacrifices were to be esteemed, not by the value of the national commerce, finances, or revenue, but by the real value of peace to the existence of the subjects, and by looking forward to the means which might yet be necessary for the farther continuance of the war. From the experience of the last fourteen years, he must acknowledge, that the permanency of any peace now likely to be concluded, would be decreased, in proportion as the times were more perilous. When, therefore, we lament the failure of the late negociation, this small degree of probability, of obtaining a permanent peace, must be taken into consideration.——We were in possession of objects of considerable advantage, both as to our safety in time of peace, and in time of war, so as to weaken the force of the enemy. The state of actual possession was considered as the only basis on which alone we could enter into the negociations with our present enemy, because we could not afford to pay any considerable price for an unstable and an uncertain peace. Our object was, not so much profit or commerce, as security. At the same time, this basis of actual possession was never intended to exclude such exchanges, as might be judged expedient. Above all, we could never be conceived to be entering on such a negociation, under the supposition that we were in a state of inferiority to France. This was the general sentiment of those who had conducted the late negociation.——With respect to our allies, we were bound to support them. It was impossible to conceal the distress which must result to this country, from the total subjugation of the Continent. When the present ministers came into power, they found a subsisting treaty between this country and Russia, by which Great Britain was bound not to make peace without the consent of the Emperor Alexander. That engagement, had he had the honour of being consulted, he should have advised; and,

being made, he was sure that no noble lord in that House, or in his Majesty's councils, could think that it should have been broken through. We had other allies beside Russia, to whom we were bound, though not to the same extent. Such were Sweden and Portugal, for whom we asked nothing, except their original state of possession. Beside these, were allies of another description: the King of Naples, and the Elector of Hanover, as a distinct and separate power. As to the King of Naples, we were not bound by any distinct engagement, to procure the restoration of his whole dominions; yet, if they could be recovered, even with considerable sacrifices, we ought to meet the difficulty. The kingdom of Sicily stands in a different point of view: with the consent of its sovereign, we had occupied Sicily, and we could not think of delivering it over to the enemy. As to the Elector of Hanover, if his possessions had been attacked, not on account of any quarrel in which they had been engaged, but solely because war had been declared against Great Britain, and our enemy finding us invulnerable on any point, thought proper to take possession of the Electorate, were we not bound in honour to effect, by a treaty, its restoration? The irresistibility of this claim was admitted at Paris. In concluding, Lord Grenville observed, that he should have been much happier in addressing their lordships on the conclusion of a peace. In France, throughout the negociations, there was evidently a uniform and invariable desire evinced, to disunite this country from all her continental allies. Large proposals were made, and every means were used to sever us from our allies, particularly from Russia. Finding us not likely to be prevailed on, they next applied to the Russian minister; and, by dint of threats, menaces, and promises, compelled him to break faith with this country, and to sign a treaty beyond the powers which he had received. On the very day of the signing of the treaty by d'Oubril, the demands of France were increased; but, at the moment when suspicion began to prevail at Paris, that his treaty would not be ratified, a different language was held to us; clearly exhibiting, that it was equally the same to France, which of the two amicable powers they could prevail upon to break with the other. —— The only remaining point to be considered was, whether the demands of Russia were so extravagant, as to warrant us in making a separate peace. They were not: and they merely added a demand, that France should desist from the occupation of Dalmatia, which could not be holden but for the purpose of general offence against Europe, being neither a commercial nor a maritime acquisition: should France continue to hold Dalmatia, it would give her the controul of the Austrian capital, and the power of dictating to the Porte.

Lord Hawkesbury concurred in the general object of the proposed address, but did not perceive any expressions that bore out the assertion contained in His Majesty's Declaration, that the first proposals for negociation were made by the French government; nor could he discover any grounds for supposing, that the *uti possidetis* had ever been acknowledged as the basis of the treaty. Such a fact should have been established by some written document.

Lord Sidmouth contended, that, although there was no specific admission of the *uti possidetis*, on the part of the French government, the whole of the negociation had been conducted on that basis. His Lordship supported this position, by quoting the words of M. Talleyrand, in his letter to Mr. Fox, in the early stage of the correspondence between the two governments:—"France desires nothing of Great-Britain that she already possesses." This also was the uniform impression on the mind of Lord Yarmouth, to whom Talleyrand had used the expression—*nous ne vous la demandons pas.*—Alluding to the finances of this country, his Lordship observed, that, at the present moment, we had resources very different from those of 1801. Since that time, £97,000,000 had been funded; and taxation, to the amount of £4,900,000, had been imposed in addition to war taxes, amounting to nearly £20,000,000.

Earl Grosvenor expressed himself as doubting the propriety of continuing the negociation to so protracted a period; conceiving that it tended to relax the vigour of our operations. He rejoiced, however, at the flourishing state of our finances, at the approaching abolition of the Slave Trade, and the preservation of the established Church. Yet he lamented the violation of the Lord's day, and the great increase of sectaries.

Lord Eldon declared himself feelingly alive to that part of the address, which proposed the most unceasing vigour and undaunted resolution in continuing the contest; yet he could not but lament the protraction of the negociation; because the chicanery and deception of the French government had been so peculiarly marked, throughout its every stage. From his conviction of the unceasing ambition by which the chief of the French government was actuated, he could by no means bring himself to join in that part of the address, where the ineffectual endeavours of His Majesty to form a pacific treaty were considered as a cause of regret. He had never considered the treaty of Amiens, as honourable or glorious; and, since that treaty, the characteristic duplicity of the French ca-

binet had been more obvious than ever. He was much deceived, if the changes in Germany, and the Rhenish Confederation, were not only meditated, but actually completed, before the signing of D'Oubril's treaty;—most certainly before the arrival of that ambassador, with the treaty, at St. Petersburgh.—With respect to the *uti possidetis*, he could not recognize that principle, as forming the basis of a treaty, compared with either of the two bases agreed upon. His Majesty's government had proved that it sought for peace, in the spirit of peace; but the conduct of the French had been a tissue of perfidy and evasion. As to the last letter, said to have been sent from M. Talleyrand to the noble Lord who latterly conducted the negociation at Paris, he should hope that no such letter had ever been received; and that no minister of a hostile power would dare to send to the plenipotentiary of Great Britain, a communication replete with such base and injurious calumnies.

Lord Grenville, in his closing speech, strongly insisted, that the *uti possidetis* had not only been admitted, and acted upon, but had actually been *selected* by the French government, in preference to any other; in support of which his Lordship adverted to the statement made by Lord Yarmouth, in the House of Commons.

The Earl of Lauderdale, feeling himself called upon for some explanation, entered into a review of his own conduct, during the negociation; and contended that the papers themselves, as well as the verbal communications of Lord Yarmouth, would all shew, that, throughout the negociation, he had had the *uti possidetis* solely in view.—The original motion for the address was then put, and carried *nem. dis.*

In the House of Commons, Dec. 30, some days previously to the discussion of the Negociation Papers, Lord Yarmouth stated that he had been desired, by the French ministers, to inform Mr. Fox that France would agree to treat on the basis of actual possession; but that there might be stipulations for such exchanges as should be mutually satisfactory.

On the night of discussion, in the lower house, Lord Howick moved an address to His Majesty, similar in substance to that of Lord Grenville in the House of Lords.—He observed, that in rising to perform this duty, it was impossible that he should not experience many painful feelings; among which were, his deep regret for the failure of an effort, sincerely directed for the restoration of peace to this country and to Europe; and his loss of a friend and instructor, without whose support he had no confidence in his own strength.—His Lordship went over nearly the same grounds as Lord Grenville had done; contending chiefly, that the first overture came from the enemy, that the negociation was instituted on the basis of actual possession, and that we had been treating fairly in conjunction with our allies.—In adverting to the note of M. Talleyrand to Lord Lauderdale, of Sept. 4, as it appeared in the French publication of the correspondence, it ought to be made known, that that insulting note had never been delivered; if it had, blame would have been justly imputable to his Lordship, for remaining a day longer in Paris. Nothing was more false than the insinuation in that note, that, after the death of Mr. Fox, the war party had prevailed in the English cabinet, and had indulged a disposition to break off the negociation. No difference of opinion whatever subsisted among His Majesty's ministers during the whole period of the negociation. In the last conversation which he had with Mr. Fox, Sept. 7, that great man expressly stated, that, anxious as he was for peace, he had insisted on such a peace only as should be found, first, consistent with the honour and interests of this country; secondly, with our connections with Russia; and, thirdly, with the preservation of Sicily to its legitimate sovereign, or such an equivalent as he would be willing to accept of.

Lord Yarmouth rose to vindicate himself from the degree of blame thrown upon him in some of the papers before the House. From considering the original grounds of the present war, and the then present situation of affairs, every thing seemed favorable for the commencement of the late negociation. The war originally broke out on the subject of Malta: he thought, therefore, that if, in a treaty for peace, Malta should be secured to England, a great object would be obtained. Another inducement for commencing the war, had been the growing spirit which manifested itself throughout Europe, for resisting the encroachments of France. Through the crooked policy of Prussia, the coalition which had been formed on that principle had been dissolved, and Austria laid prostrate at the feet of France. Under these circumstances the negociation commenced. But, at the very outset, great difficulties arose: France knew that we should insist on Hanover; but, at the same time, she had partly guaranteed that Electorate to Prussia. With a view of getting over that difficulty, a verbal communication had been made to him (Lord Yarmouth) by M. Talleyrand, intended to facilitate the restoration of peace. It was begun in secresy, that, should the issue be unsuccessful, the subsisting connection between France and Prussia might not be dissolved. By the particular desire of M. Talleyrand, he had not committed this communication to writing, at least so as to submit any paper

on the subject to the British cabinet. It was afterwards stated, by the French government, that a Russian minister was expected at Paris, with the view of meeting there a British plenipotentiary. On his return to Paris, after coming to this country, he repeated to Talleyrand the substance of the conversation which he had had with him, respecting the restoration of Hanover, and the basis of negociation, which was admitted to be correct; but, at the same time, Talleyrand stated, in a fair and manly way, that circumstances had altered, which would produce an alteration of terms. However, when he then mentioned the understood basis of actual possession, no objection was made to it, nor did he believe that any would have been made, had not the French cabinet discovered a great jealousy of ours, when they learned the death of Mr. Fox.—He declared that he had never received instructions not to produce his full powers, unless the basis of actual possession were committed to writing. His Majesty's ministers were well aware of the probability of D'Oubril's signing a separate treaty with France; yet he received no instruction from them, how he was to conduct himself under that circumstance. In this state of affairs, Lord Lauderdale arrived.

Lord Howick now expressly stated, that Lord Yarmouth returned to Paris with verbal instructions; and, afterwards, when his full powers were sent to him, he was instructed not to produce those powers, without an acknowledgement, on the part of France, of the basis of the *uti possidetis:* in a subsequent letter, his Lordship was instructed not to proceed with the negociation, until France returned to her acknowledged basis.

Mr. Montague declared that he saw nothing in the late negociation but the triumph of artifice over credulity. He much disliked that expression in the letter of our first minister, of *perfect attachment* to the minister of France; it was too much for the taste of an antigallican Englishman. Buonaparté's main object, throughout the negociation, had been to carry on his designs against Prussia more securely. It was bad policy in this country to make war upon Prussia; as by that means, we rendered it impossible for us to assist her against France. Hanover had been used as a bone of contention, to set this country and Prussia at variance. The hon. gentleman blamed ministers for appointing Lord Yarmouth as a negociator, that noblemaa being unacquainted with diplomatic discussions. Even Lord Lauderdale, notwithstanding the intimacies which he had contracted with the Brissotine faction in 1792, seemed to have been kept at Paris only to witness the fresh thunderbolts of war that were forging against this country, and against Prussia.

Sir Thomas Turton considered that the negociation had been broken off entirely upon Russian grounds; had it not been for which, we might have got over all our other difficulties with honour. He had no doubt that Russia would have agreed to a separate treaty, could she have done so, advantageously to herself. Yet he thought, as the whole proceedings of the French had been a tissue of chicanery and finesse, we ought to have broken off the negociation much earlier.

Mr. Whitbread differed from Mr. Montague. Mr. Pitt, of whose character he seemed to entertain so high an opinion, had not only ceased to cherish political animosities against his public opponents, but had actually recommended to the selection of his sovereign, his great political rival. He was sorry, that the inexpediency of having entered upon the late negociation, seemed to be an opinion gaining too much ground in this country. Were the supporters of that opinion prepared to say, that, between this country and France there no longer existed any method of conciliation?——Against such a principle, he must continue to raise his voice, and to lift up his hand. However he had coincided with his honourable friends, who composed the present administration, upon the expediency and propriety of entering upon a pacific arrangement with France; however he admired the candour, sincerity, and manliness, which characterised its origin and prior conduct; yet, with deep regret, he must declare, that there were, in the progress of the negociation, some parts which he could not approve. Notwithstanding the assertion of his noble friend (Lord Howick) that, during the whole period of the negociation, no difference of opinion had subsisted among his Majesty's ministers, he could see, from the awful period when death closed the scene upon the enlightened statesman, who first conducted the negociation, characters which distinguished one part of it from another. He conceived, that peace was equally desired by both governments; nor did he see any justifiable ground for the charges of duplicity, deception, and bad faith, which had been so liberally, and perhaps inconsiderately indulged in against the enemy. His reason for believing so was, that the enemy had no interest in such a system of acting.—— Lord Yarmouth had been arraigned, for a premature exposition of his powers, in opposition to the orders which he had received not to produce them, unless Sicily were given up; but, between the period when those instructions were given, and that act of the noble lord, great changes had occurred. Sicily was no longer considered as a *sine qua non*, but as an article of barter, on a full and appropriate consideration; and M. d'Oubril had actually signed a separate treaty with France. He could not perceive that any injury had re-

sulted from the exhibition of his full powers. ——Mr. Whitbread expatiated on the propriety of selecting Lord Lauderdale as a negociator; yet he thought that his lordship had been somewhat too peremptory; and he regretted the formal and categorical manner in which the recognition of the principle of actual possession had been demanded. Occurring at the moment, as it were, of the death of Mr. Fox, it excited a suspicion that the system of British policy was about to be changed. ——After adverting to the conduct of Prussia, to the former partitions of Poland, to the infraction of the treaty of Amiens, &c. &c. he observed, that it was impossible for him to join in any resolution, imputing the failure of the negociation to the injustice of France, or to agree to what appeared a corollary from it, that there was no alternative but interminable war with France. He must therefore make an effort, though perhaps unseconded, to procure the resumption of the negociation, before the avenues of peace were actually closed, and "the gates of mercy shut upon mankind."—— He accordingly moved, as an amendment, "to assure his Majesty of the firm determination of his faithful Commons, to co-operate with his Majesty, in a vigorous prosecution of the contest: and to express their earnest prayer, that his Majesty may be graciously pleased to listen, as far as may be consistent with his own honour, and the interests of his kingdom, to every facility of just arrangement, calculated to put an end to the horrors of war."

This amendment was seconded by Mr. G. Johnstone; but, on being put, was negatived without a division.

On the original question being proposed, Mr. Canning expressed his surprise at the silence of the ministers, in neither offering an explanation, nor entering into a vindication of their measures during the late negociation. For his own part, he condemned the negociation; he wished for war, as it might lead to a speedy and honourable peace.

Lord H. Petty, Mr. Perceval, Lord Howick, and Mr. Whitbread, subsequently spoke in explanation; after which the original motion for the address was carried without a division.

OBSERVANDA INTERNA.

Fisheries.—Owing to the encouragement given to the Newfoundland fisheries by the present government, it appears that whereas in the year 1805, 467 ships, 52,997 tons burthen, and 3514 men employed in the export of its produce, there have been in the year 1806, 577 ships, 64,667 tons burthen, and 4,336 men employed; making an increas to the shipping interest of this country, of 110 ships, 11,670 tons, and 322 men, in this trade alone.

Mr. Stock's Charity.—On Dec. 17, ten poor curates were elected to receive the present year's donation of £10 each.—Among others, Jas. Marshall of Ireby in Cumberland aged 53, has 10 children; his living £25 per annum. John Topping of Stapleton, in the same county, aged 43; 8 children; £30 per annum. Henry Johnson of Martindale, Westmoreland, aged 48; 6 children; £30 per annum. Daniel Fidler of Little Wakering, Essex, aged 37; 5 children; £40 per annum.

Propagation of White Thorn.—We learn from a communication to the Society of Arts, that the white thorn, which is so valuable for fences, may be propagated by cuttings from the roots, with considerable success, while cuttings from the branches do not thrive.—The roots of plants a year old will afford each ten or twelve cuttings, and in three years, a succession of plants fit for use will be produced.

LANCASTER.

Repository for the Poor.—Among other modes of assistance afforded by the Repository at Lancaster, the plan of selling blankets at reduced prices to the poor, has been adopted. Twenty pairs have been already ordered; which are to be paid for by those who purchase them, in small weekly sums. This method has been found in other places to supply the poor with an essential comfort, without taking from their earnings more than they can conveniently afford at one time, and to be more beneficial than where the relief has been entirely gratuitous.

LINCOLNSHIRE.

Curious Fossil Animals.—A few days ago as some labourers were digging clay in the brick yard of Mr. Pool at Bottleford, near Grantham, about nine feet from the surface they discovered the head and horns of an animal of the bull kind, of most extraordinary dimensions. The weight of the horns, with a piece of the frontal bone, is 31 pounds, the span from tip to tip is 2 feet 1 inch; and the greatest bulge of the horns 3 feet 2 inches; each horn from the skull to the tip measures 2 feet 8 inches, and is at its base 1 foot 1½ inch in circumference. One tooth weighs 2¼ ounces. There is an imperfect cavity in the clay, in which the body of the animal is supposed to have been, and on each side was a large piece of an oak tree, as black as ebony. Some part of the horns near the tip is completely petrified.

NORTHAMPTONSHIRE.

Yew Tree poisonous.—A widow woman

of Southwick, near Oundle, had three horses poisoned a few days ago, in consequence of eating the fibres of a yew-tree.

Since this information the public prints have mentioned the poisoning of several fine cows, by the same plant.

SUSSEX.

Antique Ornaments.—The late high tides which made such encroachments at Brighthelmstone and at other places along the Sussex coast, washed down a considerable portion of the cliffs (a combination of sand and other loose matter) about three quarters of a mile west of the sea-houses at Eastbourne, and completely swept away all the shingle below, which brought to light some curiosities that have all the appearance of being of the highest antiquity; at least of a period before the conquest of Britain by the Romans.——They consist of gold rings or bracelets, bearing a polish equal to any trinket, when first turned out from the jewellers' hands; a mass of mixed metal, of the colour of gold, and of brass celts differently formed, and in the highest state of preservation; the latter, it may be fairly conjectured, were the weapons of war used by the Celtæ, who anciently peopled this island from the adjacent continent. The person who first found one of these bracelets, by traversing the strand in search of valuables, which is customary with sea-roamers after the shingle has shifted, having sold it by weight, for nine guineas, and made the circumstance known, the search was pursued by others, who soon picked up four more varying but little in size and figure. The belts were found in the cliffs owing to a portion of one of them being exposed by the fall that had taken place. There is reason to believe, from articles of a similar nature that have been discovered in various parts, chiefly at the southern extremity of the island, that those above-mentioned, were deposited with the body of some dignified person, or possibly with a family of ancient Britons in their burial-place; if so, they must have come from the surface of the soil above the cliffs, and it is probable that some mound, or at least some evident swelling of the earth covered them, when they were in their original situation; and if this be the case, the cell of the cliffs from whence they descended, contains other burial-places, which may be traced by the heaved-up earth. If the conjecture be right, that these ornaments, &c. were originally deposited in a sepulchre, the scite of it will be found to be high, and to command a distant prospect. The ancient Britons seldom varied from their customs. ——Charles Gilbert, Esq., whose disposition to curious investigation does him credit, caused the several articles to be collected and sent to Sir Joseph Banks, for the inspection and opinion of the learned members of the Antiquarian Society.

DUBLIN.

St. Andrew's Church.—The Church-Wardens, and Committee for conducting the repairs of this edifice, met on Thursday, Jan. 15, to investigate the cause from which the fire proceeded, that broke out that morning in the vestry room, when it appeared to be accidental. From this vestry-room, there is a door which leads into the reading-desk of the church, under the pulpit and organ; and but for the timely discovery, the flames must in a very short time, have communicated into the interior of the church. The works of this beautiful edifice have been carrying on near fourteen years, and are now in such a forward state as to permit of divine service being performed there, on or before the ensuing Easter. The *coup d'œil* of the interior of this church is light and airy; the architecture, not any of the five orders—forming a light and irregular Gothic, which produces a very pleasing effect.——The disposition of the organ, pulpit, reading-desk, communion table, and seats of this church, differ from any other (we believe) in the United Kingdom. The organ is elevated as high as the roof will, with propriety, admit. —Beneath the centre of this is the pulpit, under which is the reading-desk, and below, in front of this, is the communion table, with the words, "Do this in remembrance of me." At each side of the organ, is a gallery, with a light and beautifully ornamented Chinese railing in front, and elevated upon small brass pillars, being the places allotted for the boys and girls of the parish charity schools. —All the seats in the lower part of the church gradually rise above each other from the centre floor or area, in an amphitheatre form; and the gallery is carried entirely round the church from one side of the organ to the other. Throughout the church are many pieces of ornamental carving in wood, executed in a very masterly and workmanlike manner. The ceiling is very neatly stuccoed and painted; in the centre there is an oval, of open-work stucco, from which is to be suspended that large carved and gilt branch which was wont to light up the Irish House of Commons.—The walls around, from the gallery to the ceiling, are empannelled and ornamented; the ground a light blue, the moulding and ornaments white.

Powell's Christmas donation.—Alderman Vance, as late Lord Mayor, attended by the late High Sheriff, distributed the Christmas donation of a piece of beef, a loaf, and a piece of money, to each of the confined debtors in the four courts, and City Marshalsea, on Christmas eve, pursuant to the last will of Mr. Powell, a gentleman who had once expe-

rienced the gloom of captivity, as a debtor, in one of those mansions of misery, on a Christmas day, without a dinner or means to procure it: but whose industry, after his enlargement, enabled him to bequeath the interest of £1000 4 per cents, to be annually distributed in the above humane manner by the ex Lord Mayor.

OBSERVANDA EXTERNA.

ARABIA.

Names of Countries.

Europe is called by the Arabians from the Franks, or French, *Afranjiyah*; a name which they gave indiscriminately to all the nations of Christendom engaged in the Cruzades. But, since the Arabians have had a more considerable knowledge of Europe, they have distinguished some of the nations by different names; as *Ingitar*, the English; *Afransuavi*, the French; *Nemseh*, the Germans; *Rus*, the Russians; *Andalous*, the Spaniards; *Talian*, the Italians; and, *Lch*, the Polanders.—This is of more consequence since the French revolution, than ever it was before: as it is absolutely necessary to personal safety, that a Frank, or European Christian, be not mistaken for a Frenchman.

BOHEMIA.

Botanical Lectures.

Count Joseph Malubailla von Canal, President of the Economical Society in Bohemia, has built a Lecture Room in his Botanical Garden at Prague, where Dr. Nowodworstu, extra professor of Botany, delivers lectures on that science.

DENMARK.

Ships which passed the Sound in 1806.

There have passed the Sound during the course of the year 1806, 7140 vessels: that is to say, 3535 from the North Sea to the Baltic; and 3605 from the Baltic to the Sea. Of these were

	vessels.		*vessels.*
Danes . . .	878	Oldenburghers	57
Swedes . . .	1001	Bremeners .	36
English . . .	1257	Rostockers .	47
Prussians . .	79	Lubeckers .	31
Pappenburghers	21	Russians .	53
Hamburghers .	25	Americans .	107
		Portuguese .	14

FRANCE.

Military Hospitals.

There were received into these hospitals, during the year 1805, 204,490 sick soldiers, of all degrees, officers included: who have received attendance during 4,928,909 days: and have cost 8,901,200 francs. Of this number, 181,584 have quitted the hospitals, 6,437 have died, 16,469 remained in the hospitals. The average number of sick per day, has been 13,504.—The mortality has been one in twenty-nine and a quarter.—The daily average cost of each patient, has been one livre, twelve sous, two deniers. Not quite 1s. 6d. English.

Silent Nation in America.

At a late assembly of the deaf and dumb, the Abbé Sicard mentioned the discovery of a nation in the northern parts of America, which had no language, but used signs as the medium of expression. A remarkable circumstance is, that the signs employed by this silent race, are nearly the same as those devised by the Abbé for the instruction of his pupils.

Astronomy employed to explain Prophecy.

M. de Lormel has published an explanation of the prophecies of Daniel, founded on the great period of the obliquity of the ecliptic! —This obliquity, however, has its periods of augmentation and diminution, as produced by planetary attraction—what then becomes of this principle of explanation?

Motion of a Wood.

From Beauvais we learn that the wood of Bourroche, about three leagues from that city, has lately descended from the side of the hill on which it stood, and has sunk into the very deep excavations which had been made by a stone quarry. Happily, no person was hurt by this occurrence, but instead of a mountain and a wood, the scene now presents only a valley in great disorder: the tops of the trees just peering among the enormous masses of stone, while their roots and trunks are sunk to great depths below, probably never more to behold the light again.

This accident, which bears some resemblance to the fall of the Rosemberg, Panorama, p. 419, has, very fortunately, been free from its calamitous consequences.

Diminution of Animals.

The animals used for food in this kingdom, appear to be diminishing progressively: and shortly, it is feared, will fail of the customary supply. Skins of all kinds are sensibly increased in price, and will soon be too dear for the arts. To choose, says the writer, one example out of a thousand, the binding of books is doubled in its cost within twenty years: and we are actually employed in seeking after substitutes for calves' skin and sheepskin.—The tanning of hog's leather is advised—if those who are fond of smoaked hams can spare it from covering those delicacies during that operation.

Instances of the return of Ancient Customs in France.

The Holy Crown of thorns, given to Saint Louis by Baldwin Emperor of Constantinople in 1238, and which was preserved untouched amidst the revolutionary mania of 1793, was solemnly transferred on Sunday the 10th of August to the Metropolitan Church at Paris. The relic was exhibited to public adoration in a beautiful gilt frame representing the terrestial globe, surmounted with a cross, at the foot of which was a lion, with this inscription, *Vicit leo de tribu Juda.*

Thuilleries.

In front of the principal body of the pa-

lace of the Thuilleries, were two dial plates, appertaining to clocks within the palace, on one of which the hours, minutes, &c. were divided into ten; on the other into twelve, as usual. The roof having required some repair, afforded, it was thought, a favourable opportunity for removing the decimal clock; which has served only to evince to what a degree the rage for innovation can rise in opposition to customs and usages, adopted in all ages, and by every nation.

St. Denis.

By a decree of Bonaparté, the Church of Saint Genevieve will be restored to the catholic worship, and that of Saint Denis to the sepulture of the Emperors. The latter will be attended by a chapter composed of ten bishops, the first of which is to be the Grand Almoner.

Spanish Newspaper.

On the 21st of August, 1806, a newspaper printed *in Spanish*, made its first appearance at Paris: the purposes which it is intended to answer, cannot but present themselves to the imaginations of our readers, without needing any comment from us.

Preservative powers of Acid Fumigation.

M. Protat M. D. Physician to the military wards of the general hospital at Dijon, has reported the following observations. There were during the course of 1805, very many adynamic fevers, *particularly among the refractory conscripts*, and others discharged from prisons; but it is consolatory that this disorder, which is extremely fatal, has not taken off, this year, more than half of the number which it commonly does, and which it had done the year before. This favourable alteration is attributed to the care employed, *every day*, in making fumigations of the oxigenated muriatic acid, in the wards. What is particularly remarkable is, that in former years, when these fumigations were not made, many of those who had the care of the sick took the disease and died; while, on the contrary, since this mode has been adopted, and daily practised, not a single individual employed in the service of the wards has contracted this species of fever. This statement agrees with observations made in the military hospital at Paris. Compare Panorama, p. 839, a very striking instance of the preservative power of this fumigation.

GERMANY.

Plan for paying off the State Debt.

Vienna. A project for extinguishing the debt of this state, has been started here, which has been thought very feasible. Among the 22 millions of people comprised in the hereditary states, it is supposed, that 10 millions, are sufficiently wealthy, to support, during three years, an extraordinary contribution of five florins in bank bills each person: this would diminish 50 millions yearly, which might buy up 60 millions of government bonds, which now lose 10 or 12 per cent.; so that at the end of three years, including the effect of compound interest, more than 200 millions would be redeemed: and by this measure, one of the deepest wounds of the Austrian monarchy would be healed.

ITALY.

Astronomical Observations.

M. Calandrella, astronomer at Rome, has published Observations on the annual parallax of the Star *Lyra*, which he finds to be five seconds: this discovery, if established, would greatly diminish the distance at which the fixed stars have been calculated. Instead of six or seven millions of millions of miles, it will justify barely half that quantity.

[Compare Panorama, p. 623.]

SWITZERLAND.

Mineralogical Tour.

Mr. Escher, Member of the Helvetic Administration of the mines at Zurich, known to the friends of mineralogical studies by his memoirs in the Miners' Journal, as well as the many useful articles on geogonomy, and geology in Ebel's Introduction to the most useful manner of travelling in Switzerland, and an accurate observer of nature, has planned a mineralogical tour from Zurich, over the Grison mountains, to the Ostel peak of the Tyrol. We are, hitherto, but partially acquainted with this interesting country; and, indeed, we have only some few notices of the latter part of the tour, by Dr. Gebhawt. Mr. E. also meditates a second journey, through the western Alps, between Dauphiny and Savoy, where his geognostic penetration will collect many interesting results.

PERSIA.

Account of the Ruins of an Ancient Palace near Bagdad.

About 20 miles southward of Bagdad, formerly stood a very large and extensive city, which belonged to the Persians; some part of the palace remains to this day, entire. The gardens extended over the present course of the Tigris. The walls with which it was surrounded, still reach to the very banks of the river, and appear to have been formerly continued. The roof of what seems to have been the hall of audience, in this once magnificent mansion now called *Tauk Kusserah*, the last Persian monarch who resided here, is partly extant; although it has, according to the best information received, already stood about 1200 years. It is of so astonishing a height, that it is doubtful whether any man could throw over it. This place is now called *Soliman Pâk*, taking its name from a celebrated barber, who, having acquired great riches, directed his body to be buried close under the arch, and a handsome tomb to be erected over it.

POETRY.

ODE FOR THE NEW YEAR, 1807.

BY H. J. PYE, ESQ. POET-LAUREAT.

I.

When loud and drear the tempests roar,
When high the billowy mountains rise,
And headlong 'gainst the rocky shore,
Driven by the blast, the giddy vessel flies;
Unguided, by the wild waves borne,
Her rudder broke, her tackling torne,
Say, does the seaman's daring mind
Shrink from the angry frown of fate?
Does he, to abject fear resign'd,
Th' impending stroke in silence wait?
No—while he pours the fervent prayer
To Him whose will can punish or can spare,
Cool and intrepid 'mid the sound
Of winds and waves that rage around,
The powers that skill and strength impart,
The nervous arm, th' undaunted heart,
Collecting,—firm he fronts the threat'ning storm,
And braves, with fearless breast, fell Death's terrific form:

II.

So, though around our sea-encircled reign,
The dreadful tempest seem to lower,
Dismay'd do Britain's hardy train
Await in doubt the threat'ning hour?
Lo! to his sons, with cheering voice,
Albion's bold Genius calls aloud:
Around him valiant myriads crowd,
Or death or victory their choice;
From ev'ry port astonish'd Europe sees
Britannia's white sails swelling with the breeze;
Not her imperial barks alone
Awe the proud foe on ev'ry side,
Commerce her vessels launches on the tide,
And her indignant sons awhile
Seceding from their wonted toil,
Turn from the arts of Peace their care,
Hurl from each deck the bolts of war,
To sweep th' injurious boasters from the Main,
Who dare to circumscribe Britannia's naval reign.

III.

And see with emulative zeal
Our hosts congenial ardour feel;
The ardent spirit, that of yore
Flam'd high on Gallia's vanquish'd shore;
Or burn'd by Danube's distant flood,
When flow'd his current ting'd with Gallic blood;
Or shone on Lincelles' later fight:
Or fir'd by Acre's tow'rs the Christian Knight;
Or taught on Maida's fields the Gaul to feel,
Urg'd by the Briton's arm, the British steel;
Now in each breast with heat redoubled glows,
And gleams dismay and death on Europe's ruthless foes.

IV.

Not to Ambition's specious charm,
Not to th'ensanguin'd Despot's hand,
Is conquest bound—a mightier Arm
Than Earth's proud tyrants can withstand,
The balance holds of human fate,
Raises the low and sinks the great;
Exerting then in Europe's cause
Each energy of arm and mind,
All that from force or skill the warrior draws,
Yet to th' Almighty Power resign'd,
Whose high behest all Nature's movements guides,
Controls the battle's and the ocean's tides;
Britain still hopes that Heav'n her vows will hear,
While Mercy rears her shield and Justice points her spear.

ODE TO BONAPARTE.

To whom shall I compare thee, great Commander?
Thou hast out-Alexander'd Alexander!
Or (to improve the likeness, grant the rhymer),
Out-Zengis'd Zengis, and out-Timur'd Timur!!

SONG IN FALSE ALARMS.

The north breeze blew keenly, and deep was the gloom,
The snow storm had cover'd the plain;
When Eleanor stray'd to her Frederick's tomb,
Ah! ne'er to forsake it again.
For 'ere a faint beam summon'd nature from rest,
Congeal'd were the tears she had wept;
And cold was the cheek as the marble it press'd,
And still as her lover she slept.

SONG IN FALSE ALARMS.

Said a Smile to a Tear,
On the cheek of my dear,
And beam'd like the sun in spring weather,
In sooth, lovely Tear,
It strange must appear,
That we should be both here together.
I came from the heart,
A soft balm to impart,
To yonder sad daughter of grief;
And I, said the Smile,
That heart now beguile,
Since you gave the poor mourner relief.
Oh! then, said the Tear,
Sweet Smile, it is clear,
We are twins, and soft Pity our mother:
And how lovely that face,
Which together we grace,
For the woe and the bliss of another!

LITERARY PROSPECTIVE.

The History of the City of Dublin, ecclesiastical, civil, and military, from the earliest accounts to the present period; with an Appendix, containing a view of the several charters, grants, and immunities now extant, and an abstract of all the acts of Parliament relative to that city; extracted from the national records, approved historians, many curious and valuable manuscripts, and other authentic materials, is now under the care of John Warburton, Esq. Deputy Keeper of the Records in Birmingham Tower, and the Rev. James Whitelaw, M.R.I.A vicar of St. Catherine's, in that city, author of An Essay on the Population of Dublin. It will be printed in quarto, and illustrated by ancient and modern maps of that city, numerous views of the principal buildings, &c. by the most eminent artists.

Volume II. of Magna Britannia, containing Cambridgeshire, Cheshire, and Cornwall, by the Rev. Daniel Lysons, A.M. F.R.S. F.A. and L.S. rector of Rodmarton, Gloucestershire, and Samuel Lysons, Esq. F.R.S. and F.A.S. Keeper of his Majesty's Records in the Tower of London, will soon appear.

Part II. containing twenty-four views in Cambridgeshire, Cheshire, and Cornwall, of Britannia Depicta, a series of views of the most interesting and picturesque objects in Great Britain, engraved from drawings by Messrs. Hearne, Farington, Smith, Turner, Alexander, &c. &c. by W. Byrne, will be published at the same time.

These two works illustrate each other, and are sold together or separate; they will be continued regularly at the same periods, arranged in the same manner (the counties alphabetically), and printed on paper of corresponding size and quality.

G. Chalmers, Esq. F.R.S. and S.A. is engaged in a work, entitled Caledonia, or an Historical and Topographical Account of North Britain, from the most ancient to the present times; with a dictionary of places, chorographical and philological. It is printed in quarto, and illustrated by engravings of maps, plans, &c.

The Topography of the Lake of Killarney, by Mr. Weld, illustrated with exquisite engravings, is nearly ready.

The Rev. Mr. Abbott has a volume of Sermons in the press.

A Series of Lectures on the Four last Books of the Pentateuch, designed to shew the divine original of the Mosaic law, chiefly from its internal evidence, will soon be published; they were delivered in the chapel of Trinity College, Dublin, by the Rev. Richard Graves, D.D. Fellow of Trinity College, Dublin, M.R.I.A. and chaplain to his Excellency the Duke of Bedford, Lord Lieutenant of Ireland: two volumes octavo.

Mr. S. Woodburne has in a state of forwardness a hundred Views of Churches in the neighbourhood of London, with descriptions drawn from the best authorities. The first volume is expected to appear in March.

The admirers of the late Dr. Currie, of Liverpool, will be pleased to hear that an engraved portrait of that celebrated man, from a miniature picture in the possession of Mrs. Cairncross, Dr. Currie's sister, will be published early in the present year.

In a few months the Views of Gloucester Cathedral are expected to be published by the Society of Antiquaries.

Capt. Williamson, from whose designs and notes The Wild Sports of India have been published, has undertaken a tour through Great Britain, for the purpose of making a complete Agricultural and Statistical Survey of the island, the result of which will be published in a Description of Great Britain, to be printed in numbers, with illustrative plates; to make at least 6 vols. in 8vo.

John Adolphus, Esq. F.S.A. author of The History of England, from the Accession of King George III. to the Peace in 1783, is engaged on The Political State of the British Empire, containing a general view of the domestic and foreign possessions of the Crown, the laws, commerce, revenues, offices, and other establishments, military as well as civil: in four volumes.

Speedily will be published, by Dr. Kinglake, Strictures on Mr. Parkinson's Observations on the Nature and Cure of Gout, recently published, in opposition to the theory that proposes the cooling treatment of that disease.

By the same author, Additional Cases of Gout, in further proof of the salutary efficacy of the cooling treatment of that afflicting disease.—Also,

Reviewers Reviewed, containing a particular examination of the reports in The Literary Journal, The Medical and Chirurgical Review, The Edinburgh Medical and Surgical Journal, in Mr. Hunt's Salutary Cautions, and in Mr. Arthur Aiken's Annual Review, on the Theory of Gout, and its cooling Treatment.

The new edition of Mr. Pinkerton's Modern Geography, in three volumes quarto, will shortly appear. In consequence of the foreign editions having excited the attention of statesmen as well as men of letters, he has received much valuable assistance. During the author's late residence at Paris, he procured many scarce works, and the most recent Spanish materials concerning their colonies in North and South America. The description of the United States has also been greatly improved and enlarged, and that of

the West Indies extended. Five new maps of the various subdivisions of South America are added. Mr. Aiken has carefully revised the botanical part throughout.—Dr. Shaw has added zoological remarks.

A new edition of Palmerin of England, corrected from the original Portuguese, by Mr. Southey, is in the press.

Mr. Southey has also in the press a translation of the Chronicle of the Cid, from the Spanish.

Mr. Landseer has nearly ready for publication his course of Lectures, as delivered before the members of the Royal Institution.

An octavo edition of Capt. Williamson's Wild Sports of India is expected shortly.

Dr. Scott, the orientalist, is preparing a new edition, revised, and translated from the complete Arabic MS. copy brought over by Mr. Montague, of the Arabian Nights' Entertainments, with notes illustrative of the customs and manners of the country. The additional tales, which have never been translated, are said to be as interesting and excellent as those with which we are acquainted.

The beautiful and moral Aphorisms of Sir Philip Sydney, edited by Miss Porter, are nearly ready for publication.

Mr. John Howard Rice has in the press Collectanea Oratoria, or the Academic Orator.

Proposals have been circulated for printing by subscription, in one volume octavo, a complete Set of Estimate Tables. This work will consist of 3,600 tables.

Mr. Henry Smithers proposes to publish, in a royal octavo volume, a didactic poem, in blank verse, entitled Affection, with other poems.

Miss Owenson, author of the Wild Irish Girl, will shortly publish a volume of original poetry, under the title of the Lay of an Irish Harp.

Mr. Cumberland and Sir James Bland Burgess have, in conjunction, written a poem, of which report speaks highly, entitled The Exodiad; embracing the history of Moses from the period of his leading the Israelites out of Egypt to his death upon Mount Horeb. The work will appear shortly.

A collection of such English poems as have obtained prizes in the University of Oxford has been made, and will speedily appear.

The Bishop of Dromore will soon publish the edition of Surrey's Poems, which has so long been printed, with a glossary.

About midsummer Mr. Sotheby will publish a poem on the subject of Saul, in eight books, in blank verse.

Miss Anna Maria Porter is engaged on a new novel, to be entitled, The Hungarian Brothers.

Miss Rouverie, author of Luffington Abbey, and other novels, has nearly completed an historical romance, entitled, A Peep at our Ancestors.

The prospectus of a new periodical work has lately appeared, entitled, The Cabinet, or Monthly Report of Polite Literature; including a Review of Books, and accompanied by a cabinet edition (upon an entirely new plan) of the most popular English Plays, with anecdotes, annotations, and engravings.

The Rev. Mr. Cobbold, of Woolpit, Suffolk, intends shortly presenting the public with a Chart of English History, on the same plan as his Chart of Scripture History, recently published.

Shortly will appear the second volume (which will complete this work) of The Progress of Maritime Discovery, by the Rev. J. S. Clarke, LL.B. F.R.S. Librarian to his Royal Highness the Prince of Wales. Printed in quarto, and, in like manner with the first volume, illustrated by charts, under the direction of Mr. Arrowsmith, and other engravings. The two volumes will form a complete History of the Portuguese, Dutch, and English Discoveries in the Indian Seas.

Soon will be published, The History of Greece, from the earliest accounts to the death of Philip King of Macedon, by William Mitford, Esq. in four volumes quarto, the three volumes already published considerably augmented, the fourth volume entirely new.

Dr. John Gillies is engaged in a History of the World from the reign of Alexander to that of Augustus, with a preliminary survey of Alexander's eastern conquests, and an estimate of his plans for their consolidation and improvement.

The History of the House of Austria, from the foundation of the monarchy by Rhodolph of Hapsburgh, in the thirteenth century, to the death of the late Emperor Leopold the Second, by the Rev. William Coxe, A.M. F.R.S. and F.S.A. Archdeacon of Wilts, Rector of Bemerton, &c. is in forwardness. it will form two volumes in quarto, with maps and genealogical tables.

Soon will be published, Travels through Russia, the Territories of the Don Cossacks, Kuban Tartary, the Crimea, &c. &c. by the Rev. E. D. Clarke, LL.D. Rector of Harleton, and late Fellow of Jesus College, Cambridge, in quarto, with a portrait of the author, from a picture by Mr. Opie, and numerous other engravings.

An Essay on the Functions of Money and the Principles of Commerce, by John Wheatly, Esq. will soon appear.

The Rev. Richard Lyne, author of the Latin Primer, will publish speedily a new work, entitled Festuca Grammatica, or Child's First Guide to the Rudiments of Latin Grammar, in four parts.

The following works on Jurisprudence are preparing for publication:—

The Law of Contracts and Agreements, as settled by the determinations of the courts of common law in the action of assumpsit, by S. Comyn, Esq. of the Middle Temple, Barrister at Law.

A Treatise on the Law of Tithes, by W. F. Boteler, Esq. of Lincoln's Inn, Barrister at Law.

A new work on Conveyancing; to consist of a collection of modern precedents, with notes and illustrations, and a practical introduction on the language and structure of conveyances, by John Turner, Esq. of the Middle Temple, Barrister at Law.

A Treatise on the Law of Ejectment, by John Sympson Jessopp, Esq. of Lincoln's Inn, Barrister at Law.

An Epitome of the Practice of the Courts of King's Bench and Common Pleas.

The Present Practice of the High Court of Chancery.

Reports of the Proceedings in Committees of the House of Commons, upon Cases of Controverted Elections, during the present Parliament, by R. H. Peckwell, Esq. of Lincoln's Inn, Barrister at Law. Vol. II.

Vernon's Reports in Chancery, Vol. II. with Notes and References, by John Raithby, Esq. Barrister at Law.

Volume the Sixth of the Supplement to Viner's Abridgement.

A Practical Treatise on Pleading, with an Appendix of Precedents, by J. Chitty, Esq. of the Middle Temple.

The Appendix, which will be printed separate, is intended principally to elucidate the other parts of the work, and may be found useful as a circuit companion, and will contain those precedents which are at all likely to occur in practice, with notes referring to the law connected with the precedents.

Francis Donaldson, Esq. Barrister at Law, is preparing for the press a Treatise on Commercial Law.

A new edition, continued to the present time, of A Digest of the Reports in the King's Bench and Common Pleas, by T. E. Tomlins, Esq. Barrister at Law.

A new edition, with great additions, of Mr. Impey's Practice of the Court of King's Bench.

A new edition of Mr. Gwillim's edition of Bacon's Abridgement.

A new edition, with additions, of Jacob's Law Dictionary, by Mr. Tomlins.

An Appendix to the Attorney and Agent's Table of Costs, by John Palmer, Gent.

A new edition of Bott's Poor Laws, continued to the present time.

A new edition, corrected and enlarged, of a Treatise of the Law of Partnership, by William Watson, Esq. Barrister at Law.

A new edition, with additions, of Buller's Introduction to the Law relating to Nisi Prius.

A new edition, corrected and enlarged, of a General Catalogue of Law Books, arranged under the different Branches of the Law, by J. Butterworth.

A new edition, continued to the present time, of A Digest of the Modern Chancery Reports.

Dr. J. E. Smith proposes shortly to publish an Introduction to Botany, in one volume octavo, with a few plates, intended for the use of female as well as male students of that delightful science, and divested of every thing that might be deemed exceptionable.

The Rev. J. Joyce, author of the Scientific Dialogues, will publish early in the present month two volumes on Chemistry, with plates.

Dr. Maltby has undertaken to superintend a new edition of Morell's Thesaurus Græcæ Poeseos.

The Literary History of the eighteenth century is about to receive a farther very valuable illustration from the pen of Lord Woodhouselee, in his Life of the late Lord Kaimes.

Mr. Macdiarmid's Lives of eminent Statesmen are in the press.

The prospectus of a new periodical work, to be continued monthly, has just been issued; it is entitled The Historic Gallery of Portraits and Paintings; or Biographical Review: containing a brief account of the lives of the most celebrated men in every age and country, and graphic imitations of the finest specimens of the arts, ancient and modern, with remarks critical and explanatory.

A new and improved edition of Mr. Newman's Spanish Dictionary is in a state of forwardness.

In the press, an Account of Dr. Gall's New Theory of Physiognomy, founded on the anatomy and physiology of the brain, and the form of the skull.

Preparing for publication, the Life of Admiral Lord Viscount Nelson, under the immediate patronage of the Prince of Wales, to whom the work is, by permission, dedicated, and founded on documents communicated by His Royal Highness the Duke of Clarence, by Earl Nelson, and other branches of that distinguished family; by the Right Hon. Geo. Rose, the Hon. Brigadier General Stewart, Lady Hamilton, Dr. Beattie, &c. to the Rev. J. S. Clarke, Librarian to his Royal Highness the Prince of Wales; and from a highly interesting memoir in the late Noble Admiral's hand-writing (of which a fac-simile will be given), sent by him to John M'Arthur, Esq. who also possesses a variety of other interesting MSS. received from confidential friends of the deceased hero, and from officers of rank who served with him. Embellished with portraits, &c.

OBITUARY.

SKETCH OF MEMOIRS OF THE LATE MR. J. PACKER, OF DRURY-LANE THEATRE.

John Hayman Packer was born March 12, 1730, in the Strand, London. He served his time to his father, a sadler, who then lived in Glass-house-street. He appeared on the stage at Newcastle, June 21, 1754, under the name of Hayman. He first played in London January 24, 1758, at Covent Garden, the parts of Johnson in the Rehearsal, and the Frenchman in Lethe. Here Mr. Garrick saw him, and engaged him. He played at Drury Lane September 19, Selim in the Mourning Bride; afterwards he performed Catesby in Richard III. with Garrick, and continued to perform in almost every piece wherein Garrick appeared to the day of his quitting the stage, in 1776.

Mr. Packer for more than fifteen years had forty shillings weekly, for twelve years he had three pounds, then four; Mr. Kemble raised him to five, but soon reduced him to three. Part of this salary was allotted to an only sister under his care. The report, some years ago, that he had the £20,000 prize in the lottery, was unfounded. He bought it for Mr. Lalande of Liverpool, but had no advantage from it. — He could read the smallest print by moonlight, nor ever used glasses but to see distant objects; he had never lost a tooth, such was the reward of his temperance. He kept a journal of his life from the day he left his father's house to his death; likewise, a book in which he minuted down the births, marriages, and deaths of all his friends, which he could ascertain. He played, on at least 4852 occasions, besides walking in the Jubilee, &c. An accidental fall down stairs January 31, 1806, contributed to hasten his death, which took place September 16, 1806, in the 76th year of his age. Those who saw Mr. Packer perform only in his decline, will, perhaps, be surprised to find, that 40 years ago, Churchill, in his Rosciad, characterized him thus,

Who can, like Packer, charm with sprightly ease?

It is certain that even latterly he played Gerbin in the Regent, Adam in As you Like it, and Jarvis in the Gamester admirably. But whatever might have been his merits, his latter days were imbittered by inattention; and *scarcity* completed what accident had begun. Unable to derive from his salary, by reason of *stoppages*, those comforts which his time of life required, he sunk under grief, and added another to those fatal instances of distress in their latter days, which are already too numerous among those who have devoted themselves to the stage.—Although he was the second person that assisted to establish the Theatrical Fund, and continually contributed, yet he never asked assistance. He however received the very *generous* donation of *thirty* pounds, from the managers, at the age of 75, as a *reward* for half a century's close attention to his profession. £135 are owing of his salary.

MEMORANDA OF THE LATE BISHOP OF ST. POL DE LEON.

The Bishop of St. Pol de Léon, in Brittany, died on Tuesday November 25, aged 80 years. This worthy prelate, who has been the medium of communicating the bounty of this nation to many thousands of his distressed countrymen, was venerable not only by his public, but by his private character. He enjoyed the highest confidence of many of the most exalted personages of our government, and the general esteem of the public.

Jean François de la Marche, Bishop and Count de Leon, was born in the comté of Cornouailles, in Bas Bretagne, July, 1722 He was a youth of very promising talents. He originally entered the profession of arms; but after having been captain in the Queen's Dragoons, he left that service to devote himself to the sacred office. When a simple ecclesiastic, his conduct was uniformly decorous and pious. Afterwards he was appointed canon and vicar general of Treguier, the functions of which office he discharged with such propriety, that the welfare of the church was concerned in his elevation to the Episcopacy. He was named in 1772, to the see of St. Pol de Leon. He determined never to quit his diocese, but for the advantage of the church. Here he founded a great number of useful establishments, for the education of youth, and the instruction of those who looked forward to the ecclesiastical life. He was the refuge of his people in their calamities. He solicited and obtained from the generous and compassionate hearts of the royal family, and others, relief for the distresses of those who suffered by the inclement visitations of Nature in 1788.

He came into England in 1791. The emigration from France was soon very considerable: especially of ecclesiastics and royalists. Never will the honest part of his countrymen forget that he was the means of conveying to them the bounty of the British nation: and he had the satisfaction of seeing this bounty prolonged, and effectually established. Nor were his countrymen in England and in Jersey, the exclusive objects of his charity: whoever was unhappy partook of his care: and his assistance extended to every country on the continent. The prisons of England, the East-Indies, Botany-Bay itself, shared in his distributions. His compassion was still more conspicuous on the desolate shores of Cayenne, Sinamary, and Conamana, even here the victims of the atrocious Directory found comforts forwarded from England, by the zeal and foresight of this worthy Bishop. A tedious state of debility gradually conducted him to the tomb, with little previous suffering. He was buried at Pancras, by his particular desire, close to his old friend, the Bishop of Treguier. His funeral was attended by more than 200 persons.

STATE OF TRADE.

Lloyd's Coffee-House, Jan. 20, 1807.

The fleet which, for the due convenience of the planters, ought to have arrived in the West-Indies, before Christmas, has not long sailed from the Downs. The negroes therefore, have not had their yearly new clothing, at that time in the season at which they are taught to expect it. If they have their wonted Christmas regale of salted provisions, it must have come from America. It is the constant complaint of the planters, that the convoys from England never accommodate, in a suitable manner, the wants of the plantations. The more this is continued, so much the more must our West-India colonies be thrown into a dependence on the Americans.

The prices of British goods, are said to have risen very much at Vienna, and in other great emporea on the continent, in consequence of the late exclusion of our trade from the ports of Germany.

Bonaparte enforces, with rigour, his order of blockade against the ports of the British Empire. Neutrals are regularly prohibited from introducing British produce or manufactures into any port under his authority. Neutrals found at sea with British produce or manufactures on board, are actually subject to capture by French cruizers.

The British government has wisely adopted a corresponding measure. An order of Privy Council has given authority to our ships of war and privateers, to make prizes of neutral ships exercising a carrying trade between any ports either within the French empire, or under Bonaparte's controul.

The prices of sugars do not rise in the London market. Raw sugar is but 37*s.* 2*d.* per cwt. beside the duties.

More considerable remittances than had been expected, have to the great relief of some of our merchants, been received from Hamburgh, through circuitous courses of exchange.

We are, still, without commercial returns, or satisfactory accounts, from Buenos Ayres. Confident reports of its recapture by the Spaniards having been transmitted from various quarters, the committee of under-writers strongly recommend that British ships bound for Buenos Ayres, should, before sailing so far up the Rio de la Plata, touch, for information, at the nearest Portuguese harbour. In the mean time, the returns on the adventures to South America, are very impatiently expected. Those, who have no concern in them, insist, that they cannot but turn out very unfortunate. Even the owners of the commodities sent out, begin to think doubtfully of the issue. We should, still, hope, that the prime commodities, and those which were received the earliest at Buenos Ayres, may have been sold there with sufficient advantage. But, the supply must have been too large for the market. And it is scarcely to be imagined, that all the refuse and the sweepings of the shops and warehouses of London, can have been put off upon the Spanish colonists, with vast profit.

It does not appear, that our manufactures are much at a stand, in consequence of the late events on the continent. In London, artisans of every class are, now, in full and active employment: hands cannot be had to execute the orders, in almost any one branch. In all parts of the country the same.

The differences between the British and the Anglo-American governments have been ended by a treaty of policy and commerce. Its conditions, interesting as they necessarily are to the trade of this country, are withheld from the public, till the treaty shall have been finally ratified.

It is an agreeable thing, that our trade in the Mediterranean by Malta and Leghorn, continues still in great activity. The returns are certain and prompt.

The Anglo-Americans regret, that, by discontinuing their trade with St. Domingo, in compliance with the demands of the French, they have given occasion to a new or increased traffic between the British of Tortola and the blacks of Hayti. The American government has, upon this, withdrawn its prohibition against the trade of Hayti. We know not whether this measure may enable the American traders again to undersell us in the Haytian market. We must wait to see the effect of the late revolution in that island; and what confidence may be placed in its present rulers.

The Emperor of Russia has issued a prohibition to export grain from any part of his dominions. It was obviously necessary in the present state of his affairs in relation to the French. We should rather fear, that the prosecution of the war in those countries, which are the granaries of the north, may tend, as the season advances, to raise the price of grain in England, and even throughout Europe.—The trade of London increases still. In the 9 months ending October 10th, 1805: its exports in British produce and manufactures, were in value - £7,797,667
Foreign and colonial produce £4,156,692

£11,954,359

For the 9 months ending Oct. 10, 1806.
British produce and manufactures - - - - - £8,691,811
Foreign and colonial produce - - - - - - £4,176,620

£12,888,431

Panorama-Office, Jan. 24, 1807.

POLITICAL PERISCOPE.

The *Leda* frigate is arrived from Rio de la Plata, with dispatches from Sir Home Popham, dated Oct. 30, 1806. They state the recapture of that place, by the Spanish inhabitants, August 12. We learn, that Sir Home was blown off his station by severe gales of wind, which opportunity was taken by the Spanish Governor of Monte Video, to march an army up *his* side of the Rio Plata, and cross that river, *above* Buenos Ayres. He attacked the city; and, aided by the inhabitants, defeated the weak army of English, and regained the place. Sir Home had taken Maldonado, which he may retain, as a position, till the reinforcements arrive from Britain. Under those uncertainties which must needs attend the present state of this expedition, it would be imprudent to risk any comments on the little we know. We trust to the general character of our countrymen, that no just cause of complaint has been given to the inhabitants; but that their insurrection was produced solely by the impulse of that *amor patriæ*, which no Briton knows how to blame, when actuating any man, however injurious the consequences may be to himself.

With regard to the state of things nearer home, they differ little from our former report; yet expectation anticipates events which may give a character, at least, if not a decisive turn, to the Continental War. Russia seems to be determined to prevent Dalmatia from remaining under the power of France; and it is not unlikely that she will make decisive efforts to that effect. Some think she is marching an army across the Turkish provinces to succour her troops in Cattaro, and Castel Nuovo. We can only say to this, that those provinces are extremely difficult for such operations, unless the inhabitants be previously conciliated. This, however, which at some periods would be thought a wonderful undertaking, by events incomparably more wonderful, is rendered of secondary consequence; and to these we must next advert.

It is very natural that during a war of unexampled importance to the liberties of Europe, and the welfare of mankind, every eye should be turned with anxious solicitude to those parts which we know to be the *principal* scenes of action. The successes of the French, by prompting that active nation, with its victorious officers, to further exertions, led the vindictive Bonaparte from Germany to Poland, in pursuit of those who opposed his progress: and of course, this ill fated country became the theatre of bloodshed and misery. If we may believe reports which have every appearance of credibility, the French army has suffered severely, by disease, during its irruption beyond Berlin. The uncommon mildness of the season, has manifested itself in slight frosts, and almost incessant rains. The natives of Southern climates, which compose a great proportion of the French troops, have been surrounded with a humidity, to which they were unaccustomed, and for which they were absolutely unprepared. Ill-clothed, and when among the forests of Poland, ill-fed, they have suffered, by their extraordinary labours, their exposure to the effects of night marches, and by the unavoidable privations to which they were subjected by circumstances. Human strength has, like other powers, its limits, and when these are exceeded, it fails. We consider, then, the report that the French force has been weakened by sickness, as likely to be true.

This day have arrived five mails from Gottenburgh, with information of a series of actions between the *advancing* French, and the *retreating* Russians—during the month of December; but, these, it should appear, were, of little moment, compared with a general engagement, which took place Dec. 27, and two following days. We are not able to state the particulars of this event; but conceive, that French vivacity has been the principal cause of exposing a *part* of the French army to the *whole* of the Russian power; whereby the right wing of the French was in a manner surrounded and destroyed. The loss of this corps, amounting, no doubt, to above 20,000 men, laid open the French center, and the Russian general availing himself of this circumstance, brought his whole strength against this body, which, unable to stand the shock, gave way. Report also states, that Bonaparte, and not many other general officer, escaped; and these have taken refuge in Warsaw, about 60 or 70 miles from the field of battle. We believe there can be no doubt as to the main fact of a dreadful slaughter among the French, but whether it can be reckoned at 90,000 men, as some relate, may be doubted. We may also doubt, whether the previous sickness had carried off 40,000, as has been said. It is sufficiently afflicting to humanity to know that the loss of lives has been, upon the whole, very considerable, without accepting the highest calculation.

Information received, and published, by Government, states the loss of the French, on the last day of the engagement, at 40,000 slain, and 80 pieces of cannon taken by the Russians. We shall probably have to report an official account of these bloody operations of war.

UNIVERSITY PROMOTIONS.

Oxford.

Dec. 10. Rev. T. Preston, of Lincoln College; Mr. T. Hawkeshead, of Brasenose; Rev. H. W. Wilkinson, of Worcester; Rev. G. Street, of St. Johns; Rev. W. Bayly, of New College, B. A. were admitted M.A.

Messrs. F. B. Awdley, and J. V. Vashon, of Oriel; Ervet Hodgkinson Warriner, of Lincoln; J. W. Simpson, of Worcester, and J. C. Bussell, of Hertford, admitted B.A.

Dec. 11. Mr. J. Keble admitted scholar of Corpus Christi.

Dec. 15. Mr. W. H. Tinney, B.A. of Oriel, unanimously elected Venerian Scholar, in the room of J. Bareiro, Esq. Barrister of Law, and Fellow of Queen's, who had compleated ten years from the time of his election.

Dec. 17. The last day of Michaelmas Term, the Rev. J. Wilson, and N. Humfrey, of Lincoln College, and E. Repton of Magdalen, admitted M.A. H. D. Morgan, Esq. of Trinity, admitted B.A. Grand Compounder. Messrs. J. Watkins, of Magdalen Hall; T. Tanner, of Hertford; H. Jenkins, of Magdalen; J. Freakes, of Brasenose, admitted B.A.

Mr. Tim. Essex, Student in Music of Magdalen Hall, B.M.

Dec. 11. Mr. Norton, of University College, elected Fellow of that *society*.

The following subjects are proposed for the Chancellor Prizes for the year ensuing, viz.

For Latin verses, "*Plato Fluvius.*"

For an English Essay, "*On Duelling.*"

The first of the above subjects is intended for those gentlemen of the University, who have not exceeded four years from the time of their Matriculation; and the other, for such as have exceeded four, but not completed seven years.

The exercises are to be sent under a sealed cover to the Registrar of the University, on or before the 2d of May, 1807. None will be received after that day. The author is required to conceal his name, and to distinguish his composition by what Motto he pleases, sending at the same time his name sealed up, under another cover, with the Motto inscribed upon it. The exercises to which the prizes are adjudged, are to be repeated in the Theatre, upon the Commemoration day; immediately after the poetry, Professor's Crewelin Oration.

The King has been pleased to order a *congé d'élire* to pass the great seal, empowering the Dean and Chapter of the Cathedral Church of Bangor, to elect a Bishop to that See, void by the translation of the Rt. Rev. Father in God, William, late Bishop thereof, to the See of St. Asaph; and his Majesty has also been pleased to recommend the Rt. Rev. Father in God, John, Lord Bishop of Oxford, to be by them elected Bishop of the said See of Bangor.

The Rev. G. Stephenson, M.A. Curate of Bishopwearmouth, and late Fellow of Magdalen College, has been presented to the living of Kellow, in the county of Durham, vacant by the death of the Rev. Mr. Longstaff.

A dispensation has passed the Great Seal, to enable the Rev. T. Welles, D.D. late Fellow of Worcester College, to hold the living of Badworth (and the Chapel of Shurdington annexed), with the vicarage of Prestbury, in the county and diocese of Gloucester.

Dec. 27. On Sunday the 21st inst. the Lord Bishop of Oxford held his ordination at Christ Church, when the following gentlemen were ordained:—*Deacons.* E. Nicholson, A.B. Chaplain Elect of Queen's College; T. B. Paget, A.B. Probationer Fellow of Wadham; R. Scott, M.A. Brasenose College; J. R. Berkeley, A.B. Fellow of New College; P. P. Hony, A.B. Fellow of All Souls; C. Chisholm, A.B. Scholar of Worcester; W. Veale, A.B. Fellow of New College; J. C. Clark, A.B. Fellow of St. John's; H. C. Jones, A.B. Student of Christ Church; W. Wodehouse, A.B. Fellow of All Souls; C. Thorpe, A.M. Fellow of University; T. Davies, A.M. Fellow of Oriel; G. Barnes, M.A. Fellow of Exeter; John James, A.B. Fellow of St. Johns.—*Priests.* T. E. Bridges, A.M. Probationer Fellow of Corpus; W. T. Williams, A.M. do; R. Farrer, A.M. Fellow of Brasenose; A. H. Matthews, M.A. Fellow of Jesus; T. Dyer, B.A. Probationer Fellow of Wadham; J. Drake, L.L.B. Fellow of All Souls; H. W. Wilkinson, M.A. Fellow of Worcester; F. Bowden, M.A. Fellow of Merton; W. Dodson, B.A. Fellow of St. Johns; T. Speidell, A.M. do; T. Chambers, A.B. Scholar of Worcester; R. Jenkins, M.A. Fellow of Balliol; M. James, M.A. Fellow of Corpus; J. Evans, A.B. Scholar of Jesus; B. Pope, A.B. Chaplain of Christ Church; T. Hardwicke, M.A. Scholar of Worcester; E. Repton, M.A. Deanery of Magdalen.

On Monday the 22d inst. The Rev. John Wool, Master of the School at Midhurst, in Sussex, and late Fellow of New College, was elected to the Mastership of Rugby School.

The Rev. T. Holloway, B.A. of Exeter College, and H. Waldo Sibthorpe of University College, are elected Fellows of Exeter College.

The Lord Bishop of St. David's has been pleased to collate, the Rev. W. J. Rees, M.A. Curate of Stock Edith, Herefordshire, and late of Wadham College in this University, to the Rectory of Cascole in Radnorshire.

Cambridge.

The Rev. C. Mules, M.A. of Abington, in this county, and formerly of Catharine Hall, is instituted to the vicarage of Pampisford, on the presentation of the Lord Chancellor.

The Rev. J. Smythies, M.A. is instituted to the rectory of Alpheton in Suffolk, on the presentation of Mrs. J. S. Smythies. The same gentleman is appointed domestic chaplain to the Countess of Mansfield.

The Rev. J. Woodrow, M.A. late of Catharine Hall, minister of Ashton, near Warrington, is appointed one of the domestic chaplains to the Rt. Hon. Lord Viscount Galway.

Dec. 9. The Hon. Paul A. Irby of St. John's, second son of Lord Boston, admitted to the honorary degree of M.A.; and the Rev. H. D. Gabell, of St. John's, was the same day admitted M.A.

The subject for the Norrisian Prize for the present year is, "The fulness of the time "when Christ came into the world."

The Rev. Alex. Cotton, M.A. late of Pembroke Hall, is presented by his brother, Adm. Sir C. Cotton, Bart. to the rectory of Girton in this county, vacant by the death of the Rev. J. Fisher.

The Rev. C. Cookson of Stamford, formerly of St. John's, has been instituted to the vicarage of Cherry Wellingham, near Lincoln.

The Rev. G. Turner is instituted to the rectory of Kettleburgh, in Suffolk, on the presentation of R. Sparrow, Esq.

The Rev. E. Jermyn, M.A. late of St. John's, is instituted to the rectory of Carleton Colville in Suffolk, on the presentation of the Rev. G. Anguish.

The Rev. T. W. Hanmer, B.A. is instituted to the vicarage of Acton, in Suffolk, on the presentation of the Hon. R. P. Curzon.

The Rev. J. J. Hornby, late of Trinity, is instituted to the rectory of Northrepps in Norfolk, on the presentation of the King, in right of his Duchy of Lancaster.

Dec. 15. John Warden, Esq. of Emmanuel, admitted M.D.

Dec. 17. Rev. W. Parker, B.A. of Emmanuel, elected a Fellow of that society.

The Rev. Elias Thackeray, M.A. Vicar of Dundalk, and late Fellow of King's, has been presented, by the Rt. Rev. the Bishop of Derry, to the valuable living of Newtown Limavady, in the county of Londonderry.

The Rev Stephen Sloane, B.A. late of Trinity Hall, has been presented by the King to the rectory of Gedney, in the county and diocese of Lincoln.

The Rev. J. Forth, M.A. formerly of Jesus, has also been presented by the King to the rectory of West Heslerton, in the county and diocese of York.

The Rev. Geo. Savage, M.A. vicar of Kingston upon Thames, and formerly Fellow of King's, succeeds the late Mr. Wakefield as minister of Richmond, Surrey; the livings of Kingston and Richmond having been consolidated into one vicarage (after the death of the incumbent) by an act of parliament passed more than 30 years ago.

The Rev. J. R. Thackeray, late of Pembroke-hall, is appointed domestic chaplain to the Dowager Duchess of Newcastle.

The Rev. W. L. Mansell, D.D. rector of Fowlmire, and vicar of Chesterton, and the Rev. Geo. Law, D.D. rector of Willingham, are elected Convocation Proctors for the clergy of the diocese of Ely.

The Rev. T. Waddington, D.D. rector of Northwold, and prebendary of Ely, is elected Convocation Proctor for the clergy of the archdeaconries of Norwich and Norfolk.

The Rev. D. Rhudde, D.D. rector of Brantham with East Bergholt in Suffolk, is elected Convocation Proctor for the clergy of the archdeaconries of Suffolk and Sudbury.

Dec. 26. The Rev. Henry Fitzroy (commonly called Lord Henry Fitzroy), M.A. late of Trinity College, has been presented by the King, to the place and dignity of a prebendary of the collegiate church of St. Peter Westminster, void by the death of the Rev. Sir R. Cope Bart. D.D.

The Rev. H. W. Champneys, M.A. late of Christ's College, has also been presented by the King, to the vicarage of Welton, in the county and diocese of York, void by the resignation of the Rev. N. Simon, the last incumbent.

The Rev. F. Hopkins, M.A. of Huntingdon, formerly of Trinity College, is presented by the Master and Fellows of Clare Hall, to the vicarage of Duxford St. John, in this county, vacant by the resignation of the Rev. F. Creswell.

The Rev. W. Hammersley, of Yadley, near Birmingham, has been presented to the vicarage of Cheswardine in the county of Salop.

The degree of Doctor of Civil Law has been conferred by the University of Glasgow, upon Mr. Owen, Master of the Academy at Stowmarket, in consequence of a Latin treatise which he has written upon the Laws of Justinian.

ARMY PROMOTIONS.

The King's German Legion.

6th Lt. Inf.—Meyer to be surg.—L. Muller to be assist. surg.—Rohstradt, do.

7th do.—L. Boyer to be surg.—G. Suffert to be assist. surg.—H. Bruggemann, do.

Hospital Staff.

Surgeon.—Keine 1st line, to be surg.

Do.—J. Dynely, 1st. lt. inf. do.

Artillery.

H. Kels to be surg.

Garrison.

Wiles, clerk, to be chaplain at the Cape of Good Hope.

Artillery.

John Ross to be 2d lieut. Dated 26 August

28 Oct.—*Staff.*

B. Gen. F. A. Wetherall, from the West India Staff—Col. Wm. Cockell, 5 foot, to be brig gen to the forces serving at the Cape of Good Hope.

November 1.

2d Drag. Guards.—Lieut. W. H. Ponkin to be capt. *v.* Sir J. L. Rogers.—Lieut. H. Power to be capt. *v.* Quantock

9th Lt. Drag.—Qr. Mast Knott, 11 lt. drag. to be adj. (with rank of cornet) *v.* Hutcheon

23d do.—F Waller to be cornet, *v.* Goulburn

3d Foot Guards.—R. H. Wigstone to be ens

1st Foot—Ens P Grant to be lieut. *v.* Bedford, dismissed—Ens. L. Mc. Lean to be lieut.—Ens Galbraith, do.

3d do.—Ens. R. Morres to be lieut. *v.* Colthurst

4th do—Lieut. B. Martin, H. P. to be lieut. *v.* Jones who exch.

6th do.—Ens. T Andrews to be lieut. *v.* Bennett

8th do.—Ens. J. Raymond to be lieut *v.* Stanford D. Home to be ens. *v.* Mc. Mahon.—W. Ince do. *v.* Raymond

18th do.—Lieut. E. Irwin, 34 foot, to be lieut. *v.* Davison, exch.

19th do.—Lieut T. A Jones to be capt. *v.* Jewell

32d do.—Lieut. Gen Sir J. H. Craig, K. B. 86 foot, to be col. *v.* Simcoe deceased

33d do—O'Flaherty to be 2d lieut. *v.* Treeve.—Serj Maj. Milne, 3d guards, to be adj. with rank of 2d lieut. *v.* Smith.

24th do.—Ens. J. H. Colt, 41 foot, to be ens. *v.* Stracey

27th do.—Ens. G. Acton to be lieut. *v.* Ellis.—W. Furnass to be ens. *v.* Acton

3d do—Assist. surg. D. Lynn, H. P. to be assist. surg. *v.* Bloomfield

34th Foot.—Lieut. A. Davison, 18 foot, to be lieut *v.* Irwin

40th do.—Ens. A. O'Keefe to be lieut. *v.* Johnson—W. B Heckford to be ens. *v.* O'Keefe

48th do.—Assist. surg. R. Maxwell, H. P. to be assist. surg. *v.* Logan

49th do.—Ens. N. Wightwick to be lieut. *v.* Streeton.—Lamont to be ens. *v.* Blaquiere.

58th do.—To be lieuts.—Ens. W. Lewis, *v.* White—Ens. P. A. Fallon, *v.* Burns.—Ens. and adj. P. O'Shea to have the rank of lieut.—Ens. E. Fitzgerald, *v.* Smith.—Ens. A. Williams, *v.* Ryves.

To be ens.—T. Clifford, *v.* Lewis.—C. C. Wynne *v* Fallon.——W Steele, *v.* Fitzgerald.——R. Chute, *v.* Williams.

60th do.—G. Ramsay to be ens. *v.* De Tinseau

76th do.—Lieut. P. Dillon, H. P. to be lieut. *v.* Young exchanged.

80th do.——Lieut. R. Dashwood to be capt. *v.* Mowbray

82d do.—Buchannan to be ens. *v.* Jackson

83d do.——Ens. W. Townshend to be lieut. *v.* Creagh—Ens. Trydell to be lieut.——Ens. J. Jackson, 82d foot, to be ens. *v.* Townshend.—Ens. J. Ormsby, 96 foot, to be ens. *v.* Trydell

85th do.—Lieut.-gen. Sir C. Asgill, bart. 5 W. I. reg. to be col. *v.* Sir C. Ross

86th do.—Lt.-gen. Sir C. Ross, bart. 85 foot, to be col. *v.* Sir J. B. Craig

88th do.—Ens. J. Smith to be lieut.—E. Connolly to be ens. *v.* Smith

89th do.—Ens. J. Gilchrist. 6 W. I. R. to be lieut—Ens. J. Boyton, 1 G. B. do.

96th do.—J. Archer to be ens. *v.* Ormsby

99th do.——Ens. D. S. Conway to be lieut. *v.* O'Furnell.—M. Bourke to be ens. *v.* Conway

1st W. I. R.—Ens. Stewart 4 W. I. R. to be lieut. *v.* Boyce

5th do.—B. Gen. Hon. A. Hope from Cape Reg. to be col. *v.* Sir C. Asgill

6th do.—B. C. Walpole to be ens. *v.* Gilchrist

Roll's Reg.—Brevet Maj. de Capol to be Maj. *v.* Courten.—Lieut. L. Steiger to be capt. *v.* De Capol.—Ens. J. Tugginer to be lieut. *v.* Steiger.—M. Krumm to be ens. *v.* Tugginer

Dillon's Reg.—Franco to be ens. *v.* Hue

Cape Reg.—Maj. Gen. D. Mc. Donald, 55 foot, to be col. *v.* Hon. A. Hope

Royal W. I. Rangers.—Brig. Gen. W. Wynyard, Coldstream Guards, to be col.

1 G. B.—S. Barber, to be ens. *v.* Boyton

N. Brunswick Fencibles.—Shaffalisky to be ens.

Nova Scotia Fencibles.—Lt. Col. J. Taylor, H. P. to be lieut. col. *v.* Anderson. exch.

Staff.

Col. G. W. Ramsay, 60 foot, to be adj. gen. to the forces in Windward and Leeward Islands, *v.* Wetherall

Royal Regiment of Artillery.

2d Capt. P. Durnford to be capt. *v.* Hall.——1st Lieut. S. Bolton to be 2d capt. *v.* Durnford.—2d Lieut. R. B. Rawnsley to be 1st lieut. *v.* Bolton.—1st Lieut. H. B. Lane to be 2d capt.—2d Lieut. R. C. Graham to be 1st lieut. *v.* Lane.—2d Lieut. W. A. Raynes to be 1st lieut. *v.* Clarke——2d Lieut. C. S. Torriano to be 1st lieut. *v.* G. Smith

Medical Establishment for the Military Departments of the Ordnance.

Assist. Surg. M. Parker to be surg. *v* Mac Cullock——Sup. assist. surg. J. Redley to be assist. surg. *v.* Parker

November 8.

3d Drag. Guards.——L. Burne to be cornet, *v.* Jackson

7th Light Dragoons.——J. Heaviside, do. *v.* Annesley

16th do.—Lieut. G. H. Murray to be capt. *v.* Fry

Coldstream Guards.—Capt. Hon. H. Brand to be capt. *v.* Wynyard.——Ens. J. Thornton to be lieut. *v.* Brand

5th Foot.—Ens. R. Brown to be lieut. *v.* Green

6th do.—Sandys to be ens. *v.* Andrews.—Hosp. Mate, C. Grant to be assist. surgeon

7th do.—Lieut. J. Crowder to be capt. *v.* Taylor. Capt. Hon. H. Percy, 6 W. I. R. to be capt. *v.* Howe

8th do.—Ens. T. W. Lloyd to be lieut.—J. Drummie to be ens. *v.* Lloyd

14th do.——Lieut. T. C. Wadman to be capt. *v.* Smith.—Ens. Maxwell to be lieut. *v.* Wadman J. B. Armsworth to be ens. *v* Maxwell

18th do.——Capt. W. Loscombe to be major *v.* Hope

91st do.—J. Gracie to be 2d lieut. *v.* Ferguson

23d do.—W. Colton do *v.* Mercer

31st do.—Ens. and adj. W. Shaw to have rank as lieut.—Ens. R. Lodge to be lieut. *v.* Barker.—A. Blaney to be ens. *v.* Lodge

36th do.——Lieut. W. Wingfield to be capt. *v.* Johnson.——Ens. G. Lyndon to be lieut. *v.* Wingfield.—G. Henry to be ens. *v.* Lyndon

50th do.—Major C. Napier, Cape reg. to be maj. *v* Lyster, exch.

56th do.—Assist. Surg. E. Ratcliffe, 70 foot, to be assist. surg. *v.* Boys, who exchanges

59th foot.——Lieut. J. Creighton to be capt. *v.* Duckworth

60th do.—Ens. J. W. Reader, H. P. to be ens. *v.* Gilbert, appointed paymaster

61st do.—Ens. G. Stewart to be lieut. *v.* Kingston

63d do.—Ens. W. Snape to be lieut.

70th do.——Assist. Surg. H. Boys, 56 foot, to be assit. surg. *v.* Ratcliffe

76th do.——G. Rathbone to be ens. *v.* Hardy, whose appointment has not taken place

84th do.—Ens. J. Kay to be lieut. *v.* Wright

90th do.—Ens. A. Cumming, H. P. to be ens. *v.* Crotty, dismissed

Royal Staff Corps.—R. Shearman, Esq. 3d foot, to be paymaster, *v.* Thompson

York L. I. V.——Ens. F. Watteville, Rolls reg. to be lieut.

Meuron's Reg.—De Powel, *v.* Lentzbourg.—De Grafenried, *v.* Friedberg.—De Burgenstein, *v.* Corsi

Cape Reg.—Maj. T. Lyster, 50 foot, to be major

Froberg's Reg.——Major S. Barnes, royals, to be lieut. col.—Capt. A. Schummelketel to be maj. with temporary rank.—Lieut. C. Donavan 48 foot, to be capt. *v.* Reinach.—Lieut. C. J. de Corsi, Meuron's reg. to be capt.——Ens. A. Reichstater to be lieut.—Ens. P. Von Fahrer, do.——Ens. and adj. F. Schwartz to have the rank of lieut.

9th R. V. B.—Capt. H. C. Johnson, 30 foot, to be capt. *v.* Shackerley

German Legion.

5th Line.—Ens. F. de Sebish, 7th line, to be lieut *v.* Roden

7th do.—Cadet Serj. D. de Bacheli, to be ens. *v.* Sebish

Royal Regiment of Artillery.

Maj. W. Miller to be lieut. col. *v.* Du Vernette.

Capt. G. Charleton to be maj. *v.* Millar.—2d Capt. J. D'Arcy to be capt. *v.* Charleton.—1st Lieut. J. W. Kettlewell to be 2d capt. *v.* d'Arcy —2d Lieut. G. H. Mainwaring to be 1st lieut. *v.* Kettlewell

Corps of Royal Engineers.

Capt. J. Handfield to be major of brigade, *v.* Rowley

November 15.—*Corps of Royal Engineers.*

W. Slade to be 2d lieut. *v.* Roberts.—G. Collyer, do. *v.* Pelkington

Royal Regiment of Artillery.

Gentlemen Cadets, H. Lyons, *v.* Collyer.——J. Morris, *v.* Wilts.—J. Hincks, *v.* P. Paton, to be 2d lieuts.

2d Life Guards.—E. Lacey to be cornet and sub-lieut. *v.* Dryden

5th W. I. R.—Capt. R. Champion, 7th light drag. to be major, *v.* O'Connell

Brevet.

Col. C. Dauby, 54 foot, to be brig. gen. to the forces serving in Jamaica

Barracks.

Deputy Barrack Master, H. Pitman to be B. M. *v* Carr.—James Tudor, Esq. late 38 foot, to be deputy B. M. *v* Collins, dismissed.—H. Lumley to be do. *v.* Barnard

November 18.

2 Drag. Guards.——Wardell to be cornet without purchase, *v.* Bottomley, resigned

1st Drag.—Hosp. Mate, J. Mackenzie to be assist. surg. *v.* Paddock, promoted

3d do.——Lieut. H. Bowles, 3 foot, to be lieut. *v.* Clifford, who exch.

13 Lt. Drag.—Lt. T. H. Bond to be capt. by purchase, *v.* Henry, retired.—N. G. Johnston to be cornet by purchase, *v.* Doherty, promoted.

16th do.——Capt. C. Archer to be maj. without purchase, *v.* Symons, retired.——Lt. R. Ashworth to be capt. by purch. *v* Archer

18th do.—Lieut. H. Plunkett, 60 foot, to be lieut. *v.* Killikelly, exch.

21st do.—Hosp. mate, T. Price to be assist. surg. *v.* Elliott, appointed cornet

1st Foot Guards.—C. R. M. Molloy to be ens. by purch. *v.* Stanhope promoted

1st Foot.——Capt. J. F. Clair to be maj. without purch. *v.* Barnes promoted.—Lieut. S. B. Torrens to be capt *v.* F. Clair.—Ens. A. Mc. Donald to be lieut. *v.* Torrens.—Haire to be ens. *v.* Grant.—L. Dobbin, *v.* Mc. Donald.

3d do.——Lieut. Col. G. Scott, 8 W. I. R. to be lieut. col. *v.* Cayler appointed 85 foot.—Lieut. W. Clifford, 3 dragoons, to be lieut. *v.* Bowles

9th do.——J. Reed to be ens. without purch. *v.* Pearce superseded

14th do.—K. Mc. Kenzie to be ens. without purch. *v.* Piddock

16th do.—Ens. and adj. J. Macfarlane to have the rank of lieut.—Ens. F. Gibbons to be lieut. *v.* Browne.—L. B. Stehelin, 40 foot, to be do.—J. Walton, do.

PRICE OF MEAT.*

Smithfield, per stone of 8lb. to sink the offal.

	Beef.	Mutton.	Veal.	Pork.	Lamb.
Dec. 26	5s. 8d.	6s. 0d.	6s. 4d.	6s. 0d.	0s. 0d.
Jan. 2	5 4	5 8	6 4	6 4	0 0
9	5 2	5 4	6 4	5 0	0 0
16	5 0	5 4	6 0	5 0	0 0

Newgate and Leadenhall, by the carcase.

Dec. 26	5	0	5	8	5	8	6	0	0	0
Jan. 2	4	6	5	0	6	0	6	0	0	0
9	4	2	4	8	5	4	5	0	0	0
16	4	4	4	8	5	4	5	0	0	0

	St. James'.*			Whitechapel.*		
	Hay.		Straw.	Hay.		Straw.
Dec. 26	£4	14 6	£2 17 0	£4	18 0	£2 10 0
Jan. 2	4	18 7	2 18 6	4	18 0	2 10 0
9	4	16 0	3 12 0	4	16 0	2 14 0
16	5	0 0	2 17 0	5	0 0	3 6 0

PRICE OF HOPS.

Bags.		Pockets.	
Kent	£4 15 to £5 15	Kent	£5 0 to £6 10
Sussex	5 10 — 5 5	Sussex	4 16 — 5 12
Essex	4 10 — 5 10	Farn.	7 0 — 9 9

PRICE OF LEATHER.*

Butts, 50 to 56lb. each	24d.
Dressing Hides	18
Crop Hides for cutting	24
Flat Ordinary	19
Calf Skins, 30 to 40lb. per dozen, per lb.	40
Ditto 50 to 70	40

TALLOW,* London average per stone of 8lb. 3s. 10½d.

Soap, yellow, 74s.; mottled, 86s.; curd, 90s.

Candles, per dozen, 10s. 6d.; moulds, 11s. 6d.

COALS IN THE RIVER.

	Sunderland.	Newcastle.
Dec. 22	39s. 0d. to 42s. 0d.	37s. 0d. to 51s. 0d.
29	38 6 — 44 0	0 0 — 42 6
Jan. 5	43 6 — 44 6	40 3 — 53 0
12	42 0 — 46 6	44 6 — 51 0
19	45 6 — 0 0	42 0 — 52 0

Delivered at 12s. per chaldron advance.

PRICE OF BREAD.

	Peck Loaf.	Half Peck.	Quartern.
Dec. 25	4s 5d.	2s. 2½d.	1s. 1½d.
Jan. 1	4 5	2 2½	1 1½
8	4 5	2 2½	1 1½
15	4 5	2 2½	1 1½

Those marked thus *, are taken at the highest Price of the market.

LONDON WEEKLY RETURNS OF WHEAT.

Dec. 13	8881 quarters.	Average	79s.	9½d.
20	8811 — — — —		79	9½
27	6249 — — — —		73	1½
Jan. 3	7911 — — — —		79	3½

FLOUR.

Dec 19	8592 sacks.	Average	74s.	4½d.
26	6189 — — — —		74	3
Jan. 2	9206 — — — —		74	0½
9	13829 — — — —		73	11

METEOROLOGICAL TABLE.

Dec	8 o'clock Morning.	Noon 1 o'clock.	11 o'clock Night.	Height of Barom. Inches.	Dryness by Leslie's Hygrom.	
21	42	46	34	29,23	0	Showery
22	49	54	50	,56	4	Cloudy
23	54	55	55	,98	0	Rain
24	55	47	44	30,28	15	Fair
25	53	54	43	,12	6	Cloudy
26	40	46	42	,26	10	Fair
27	44	51	47	,11	5	Cloudy
28	50	53	47	29,90	12	Fair
29	48	50	40	,50	0	Rain
30	47	54	45	,56	0	Rain
31	41	41	35	30,19	10	Cloudy
Jan.						
1	34	39	30	,56	11	Fair
2	28	30	27	,55	7	Foggy
3	30	38	35	,26	5	Fair
4	41	41	35	,30	8	Fair
5	35	39	27	,50	10	Fair
6	26	35	32	,42	4	Fair
7	33	39	30	,33	3	Fair
8	31	38	35	,04	7	Fair
9	40	46	46	29,76	4	Cloudy
10	40	44	32	,98	8	Fair
11	33	38	36	30,24	6	Cloudy
12	37	41	40	,05	0	Cloudy
13	40	41	32	,75	10	Fair
14	28	35	30	,00	6	Cloudy
15	21	31	44	,08	11	Fair
16	46	51	48	29,88	14	Fair
17	47	51	42	,85	0	Rain
18	38	44	35	,65	10	Fair
19	32	42	45	,50	8	Fair
20	32	41	35	,06	5	Fair

COURSE OF EXCHANGE.

	December 26.	January 7.	January 9.	January 16.
Amsterdam	36-9—2 u.	36-9—2 u.	36-7—2 u.	36-7—2 u.
Ditto at sight	36	36	35-10	35-10
Rotterdam, c. f.	11-11—2 u.	11-12—2 u.	11-11—2 u.	11-11—2 u.
Hamburgh	34-8—2½ u.	34-8—2 u.	34-8—2½ u.	34-8—2½ u.
Altona —	34-9 —2½u	34-9—2½ u.	34-9—2½ u.	34-9—2½ u.
Paris —	24 10 liv.	24-10 liv.	24-10 liv.	24-10 liv.
Ditto 2 us.	24-14	24-14	24-14	24-14
Bordeaux —	24 14	24-14	24-14	24 14
Cadiz —	39¼ effect.	39¼ effect.	39¼ effect	39¼ effect.
Madrid —	39¼ effect.	39¼ effect.	39¼ effect	39¼ effect.
Bilboa —	38½	38¼	38¼	38¼
Leghorn —	48½	48½	48½	48½
Naples —	44	44	42	40
Genoa —	47 liv. pic.	47 liv. pic.	45 liv. pic.	45 liv. pic.
Venice, *n. C.*	52 ditto	52 ditto	52 ditto	52 ditto
Lisbon —	62¼	61¼	61¼	61¼
Oporto —	61	61	61	61
Dublin —	12	12	12¼	12¼
Cork —	12¼	12¼	12¼	12¼

PRICES OF BULLION.

	Per oz. £ s. d.	Per oz. £ s. d.	Per oz. £ s. d.	Per oz. £ s. d.
	4 0 0	4 0 0	4 0 0	4 0 0
Portugal gold in coin and bars				
Doubloons	0 5 5½	0 5 5½	0 5 5½	0 5 5½
New dollars	0 5 6	0 5 6	0 5 6	0 5 6½
Silver in bars				
New Louis, each				
Agio on Bank of Holland, 5½ p. ct.				

London Premiums of Insurance, 20th January, 1807.

To Bengal, out and home ..... 12 *gs.*
Madras and China, out and home ..... 12 *gs.*
Bengal or China ..... 7 *gs.*
Senegambia ..... 10 *gs.*
Madeira ..... 6 *gs.* ret. 3
Windward and Leeward Islands ... 8 *gs.* ret. 4
Jamaica ..... 8 *gs.* ret. 4
South Whale-fishery and back ..... 20 *gs.*
United States of America ..... 5 *gs.*
Smyrna, Constantin. Mediter. } 16 *gs.* ret. 9
Nice, Genoa, Leghorn, Naples }
Lisbon and Oporto ..... 8 *gs.* ret. 4
Bremen and Hambro' ..... 7 *gs.* ret. 3
Baltic, Lebaw, and Petersburgh
Carron, Leith, Perth, and Aberdeen ..... 2 *gs.*
Glasgow ..... 2½ *gs.*
Dublin, Cork, Waterford, and Newry } 2½ *gs.*
Belfast and Londonderry ..... }
Limerick ..... 4 *gs.* ret. 2
Portsmouth ..... 1½ *g.*
Poole, Exeter, Dartm. Plym. Falm. ... 2 *gs.*
Bristol, Chester, and Liverpool ..... 2 *gs.*
Yarmouth, Lynn, Hull and Newcastle 1½ g.

London, Bristol, and Liverpool.

Africa, and thence to Place Sale in } 20 *gs.*
West-India or America ..... }
Bristol to Dublin, Waterford, and Cork, 1½ g.

Bristol, Liverpool, Dublin, and Cork.

Madeira ..... 6 *gs.* ret. 3
Windw. and Leeward Isl. ..... 6 *gs.* ret. 4
Jamaica ..... 8 *gs.* ret. 4
United States of America ..... 5 *gs.*
Canada ..... 6 *gs.*
Mediterranean ..... 18 *gs.* ret. 9
Lisbon and Oporto ..... 7 *gs.* ret. 3
Poole & Dartmouth—Exeter & Plymouth
Newfoundland ..... 8 *gs.* ret 4
Dublin to Liverpool and Chester ..... 20*s.*
Boston, New-York, and Philadelphia ... 6 *gs.*
Newfoundland to Jamaica, W. & L. Isl. 15 *gs.*
Mediterranean ..... 25 *gs.*
Portugal ..... 15 *gs.* ret. 5
Bay of Honduras to Charles-Town, } 10 *gs.*
Philadelphia, and New-York ... }
England or Ireland ..... 20 *gs.*
Jamaica to Lond. Brist. Dubl.... } 15 *gs.*
Liverp. ..... }

Windward and Leeward Islands.

London, Bristol, Dublin, and } 15 *gs.* ret. 6
Liverpool ..... }
Islands to New-York or Philadelphia, 15 *gs.*
Africa to Windward and Leeward } 15 *gs.*
Islands or America ..... }
East-Indies to London ..... 15 *gs.*
St. Helena to London ..... 8 *gs.* ret. 4
Canada to London ..... 8 *gs.* ret. 5
Baltic to Liverp. Cork, and Dublin, ... 12*gs.*
Riga and *Prussian Ports to* London ... 8 *gs.*

Current Prices of Merchandize, 20th January, 1807.

American pot-ash, per cwt.	£2	4	0	to	£3	7	0	Logwood chips ——	14	0	0	16	0	0
Ditto pearl	2	10	0		3	16	0	Madder, Dutch crop, cwt.	4	5	0	5	0	0
Barilla	1	7	0		2	5	0	Mahogany ——— ft.	0	1	0	0	2	3
Brandy, Coniac .... gal.	0	19	0		1	1	6	Oak plank, Dantz. —last	11	0	0	12	0	0
Ditto Spanish	0	17	0		0	18	0	Ditto American —	10	0	0	12	10	0
Camphire, refined.... lb.	0	5	4		0	5	8	Oil, Lucca,—25 gal. jar	13	15	0	14	0	0
Ditto unrefined, cwt.	19	0	0		21	10	0	Ditto spermacæti —ton	68	0	0	70	0	0
Cochineal, garbled.... lb.	1	4	0		1	9	0	Ditto whale ———	27	0	0	28	10	0
Ditto East-India ..	0	3	0		0	6	0	Ditto Florence, ¼ chest	2	7	0	2	9	0
Coffee, fine ..... cwt.	6	5	0		6	15	0	Pitch, Stockholm —cwt.	0	14	6	0	15	6
Ditto ordinary	4	5	0		5	0	0	Quicksilver ——— lb.	0	4	6	0	4	8
Cotton-wool, Surinam, lb.	1	9	0		1	11	0	Raisins, bloom —cwt.	4	4	0	6	12	0
Ditto Jamaica ..	0	1	4½		0	1	6	Rice, Carolina ———	1	5	0	2	2	0
Ditto Smyrna....	0	1	3		0	1	6	Ditto East-India———	1	12	0	1	16	0
Ditto East-India..	0	1	3		0	1	4	Rum, Jamaica ——gal.	0	3	0	0	4	6
Currants, Zant .... cwt.	3	10	0		4	6	0	Ditto Leeward I. ——	0	2	9	0	3	6
Deals, Dantz..... piece	1	16	0		1	19	0	Saltpetre, East-India, cwt.	2	12	0	2	14	0
Ditto Petersburgh .. H.	22	0	0		24	0	0	Shellack ———	5	5	0	12	0	0
Ditto Stockholm	39	0	0		41	0	0	Thrown-silk, Italian, lb.	1	12	0	2	10	0
Elephants Teeth .... cwt.	23	0	0		36	0	0	Raw-silk, Ditto ——	0	18	0	1	14	0
———— Scrivell	16	0	0		20	0	0	Ditto China ——	1	16	0	1	19	0
Flax, Riga..... ton	69	0	0		70	0	0	Ditto Beng. novi	1	16	0	2	0	0
Ditto Petersburgh	67	0	0		68	0	0	Ditto organzine	1	9	0	1	18	0
Galls, Turkey..... cwt.	5	12	0		6	10	0	Tar, Stockholm ——bar.	1	10	0	1	11	0
Geneva, Hollands .. gal.	1	1	0		1	2	0	Tin in blocks ——cwt.	6	6	0		—	
Ditto English	0	8	0		0	12	0	Tobacco, Maryl. ——lb.	0	0	4	0	1	1
Gum Arabic, Turkey, cwt.	6	0	0		10	15	0	Ditto Virginia ——	0	0	4½	0	0	10
Ditto Sandrach	12	10	0		13	0	0	Whale-fins ———ton	20	0	0	25	0	0
Ditto Tragacanth	19	10	0		21	0	0	Red port———pipe	66	0	0	98	0	0
Gum Seneca..... cwt.	5	10	0		6	10	0	Lisbon ———	45	0	0	91	0	0
Hemp, Riga..... ton	66	0	0		0	0	0	Madeira ———	70	0	0	122	0	0
Ditto Petersburgh	66	0	0		0	0	0	Sherry ———butt	80	0	0	95	0	0
Indigo, Carrace. .... lb.	0	11	3		0	12	9	Mountain ———	72	0	0	80	0	0
Ditto East-India	0	11	0		0	14	6	Vidonia ———hogs.	69	0	0	76	0	0
Iron, British, bars, ton	18	0	0		19	0	0	Calcavella ———pipe	84	0	0	95	0	0
Ditto Swedish	25	0	0		26	0	0	Claret———hogs.	35	0	0	98	0	0
Ditto Norway	24	0	0		25	0	0	Tallow, English——cwt.	3	7	0		—	
Ditto Archangel———	25	0	0		26	0	0	Ditto Russia, white —	2	15	0	2	16	0
Lead in pigs———fod.	38	0	0			—		Ditto —— yellow—	2	7	0	2	18	0
Ditto red ———ton	36	0	0		37	0	0	Wax, Guinea, none.						
Ditto white———	54	0	0		55	0	0							

Daily Prices of STOCKS, 9th December to 21st January, 1807.

	Bank Stock.	3 p. Cent. Reduced.	3 p. Cent. Consols.	4 p. Cent. Cons. 1780.	3 p. Cent. Def.	Navy 5 per Cent.	Long Annuities.	Consol Short Ann.	5 p. Cent. 1797.	Omnium.	Imperial 3 p. Cent.	Ditto Annuities.	India Stock.	India Scrip.	India Bonds.	South Sea Stock.	Old Annuity.	New Ditto.	Navy and Vict. Bills.	3d. Exched. Bills.	3½ d. Ditto.	Lottery Tickets. £. s. d.	Consols for Acct.	Irish Omnium.	Irish 5 p. Cent.
Dec. 20	—	59	—	76⅞	—	—	16 3/16	1 1/16	—	4	7⅞	—	—	—	2 D	—	—	—	—	—	2 P	—	—	—	—
22	—	58⅞	—	—	—	—	16⅛	1 1/16	—	4	7⅞	—	—	—	2 P	—	—	—	—	—	2 P	—	—	—	—
23	—	58⅞	—	76¼	—	—	16¼	—	—	4	—	—	—	—	1 D	—	—	—	—	—	1 D	—	—	—	—
24	—	59	—	76⅛	—	—	16 3/16	—	—	—	57⅞	—	—	—	P	—	—	—	—	—	P	—	—	—	—
29	—	59	—	76⅛	—	—	16⅛	—	—	4	—	—	—	—	P	—	—	—	—	—	1 D	—	—	—	—
30	—	59	—	76⅛	—	—	16 3/16	—	—	4	58	—	—	—	P	—	—	—	—	—	1 D	—	—	—	—
31	209	59⅛	—	76⅜	—	—	16⅛	—	—	4	58	—	—	—	P	—	—	—	—	—	1 D	—	—	—	—
1807. Jan. 2	—	59⅛	—	77	—	—	16⅛	—	—	1	58⅛	—	1 D	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	2 D	19 16 0	60⅛	—	—
3	—	59⅛	—	77⅛	—	—	17	—	—	1 1/16	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	1 D	19 16 0	—	—	—
5	—	59⅛	—	77¼	—	—	16 15/16	—	—	4	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	1 D	19 16 0	—	—	—
7	—	59⅛	—	77⅛	—	—	17	—	—	2	58⅛	176½	—	—	1 P	—	—	—	—	—	1 P	—	60⅝	—	—
8	211	60	59⅛	77⅛	—	—	17 1/16	—	—	1 1/16	59	178	—	—	4 P	—	—	—	—	—	3 P	19 16 0	61	—	—
9	211½	60⅛	59⅛	77⅛	—	—	17 1/16	—	—	2 1/16	59⅛	184	—	—	4 P	—	—	—	—	—	4 P	19 16 0	60⅝	—	—
10	—	60⅛	59⅛	78⅛	—	—	17 1/16	—	—	2 1/16	—	—	—	—	4 P	—	—	—	—	—	4 P	19 16 0	—	—	—
12	—	60	59⅛	78⅛	—	—	17 1/16	—	—	2 1/16	—	—	—	—	4 P	—	—	—	—	—	4 P	19 16 0	—	—	—
13	212½	60	59⅛	77⅛	—	—	17 1/16	—	—	2 1/16	58⅛	179½	—	—	4 P	—	—	—	—	—	4 P	—	61	—	—
14	213	60	59⅛	78⅛	—	—	17 1/16	—	—	2 1/16	59	—	—	—	4 P	—	—	—	—	—	4 P	—	60⅝	—	—
15	—	59⅛	59⅛	78⅛	—	—	17⅛	—	—	2 1/16	—	77⅛	—	—	4 P	—	—	—	—	—	4 P	—	60⅝	—	—
16	214	58⅞	59⅛	78⅛	—	—	17	—	—	2	58⅛	—	—	—	4 P	—	—	—	—	—	4 P	—	60⅝	—	—
17	213	59⅛	59⅛	78⅛	—	—	17 1/16	—	—	2	58⅛	—	—	—	4 P	—	—	—	—	—	4 P	—	—	—	—
19	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
20	213½	59⅛	59⅛	78	—	—	17	—	—	2	179	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	1 P	—	60⅛	—	89